1-1-1971

A study and analysis of the utilization and influence of the critical factors of change in the schools of Concord, Massachusetts, 1965-1970.

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A STUDY AND ANALYSIS OF THE UTILIZATION AND INFLUENCE OF THE CRITICAL FACTORS OF CHANGE IN THE SCHOOLS OF CONCORD, MASSACHUSETTS, 1965-1970

by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate School of the University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

School of Education

Amherst, Massachusetts

June, 1971

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PREFACE

The Concord Public Schools have long enjoyed a prestigious position of instructional leadership. After collecting and assembling data for this study, I am convinced that they deserve this niche. The frame of reference for this study needs to be kept in constant view lest unfair comparisons be made. The leadership of the district and the building principals if measured against existing practices would be considered exemplary. The level of performance exhibited by the teaching staff gives evidence to support Concord's claim of outstanding educational opportunities for the children of their district.

The reader of this dissertation needs to be alerted to the requirement imposed by the research design, namely, that evidenced behavior be compared with normative expectations or options identified in the professional change literature. Change management and leadership behavior in Concord was not measured against actual practices considered normative in the field, but rather against optimum conditions of effective management. There are few if any school districts in our nation that could not or would not be found lacking in some or all phases of change management given a similar measure of comparison. Indeed, it should be noted that many districts would be found lacking in even attempting to effect purposeful instructional change.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this study was facilitated by cooperation and support from many sources. My obligations and indebtedness are to many, far too many to identify individually. There are a particular few who richly deserve some single recognition.

Dr. Richard Clark, the chairman of my Advisory and Dissertation Committee, has given real meaning to the term "humanistic." Dr. Clark has been a friend, an advisor, a devil's advocate at times and above all, a sensitive person who responded to another's needs and requirements on a timely and appropriate basis. I am appreciative of the privilege of having worked with him.

Dr. Kenneth Blanchard offered valuable technical and general advisory assistance. Drs. Flight and Woodbury were other members of my committee whom I harried incessantly but who responded helpfully.

Mrs. Louise Ross, my secretary, was a pillar of strength and the epitomy of loyalty throughout the writing and development of this study. Her technical artistry in putting the thesis together is unmatchable. I have been privileged to have had access to her work and her loyalty.

The administration and professional staff in Concord were exceptional in their willingness to cooperate. I trust that this study will prove of some future use to them.

One saves the best for last. I have been fortunate in having the support, encouragement and love from my wife Nancy and our three children, John, Martha and Geoffrey. I have of necessity deprived them of time and

opportunity as I pursued my doctoral program. They never ceased to be supportive or to lessen their encouragement of my quest. Thank you is too simple but it best expresses my acknowledgement of their sacrifices and their devotion.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Robert Oppenheimer, in 1955, wrote:

> In an important sense this world of ours is a new world, in which the unity of knowledge, the nature of human communities, the order of ideas, the very notions of society and culture have changed and will not return to what they have been in the past. What is new is new not because it has never been there before, but because it has changed in quality. One thing that is new is the prevalence of newness, the changing scale and scope of change itself, so that the world alters as we walk in it. What is new is that in one generation our knowledge of the natural world engulfs, upsets, and compliments all knowledge of the natural world before. The very difficulties which changes present are derived from growth in understanding, in skill and in power. To assail the changes that have unmoored us from the past is futile, and in a deep sense, I think, it is wicked. We need to recognize the change and learn what resources we have.[1]

The acceptance of change as a reality with which we must deal is no longer a problem. The change-vs-no-change debate has swung to considering methods and approaches available for use in controlling and directing forces in change. John Dewey has remarked that "History in being a process of change generates change not only in details, but also in the methods of directing social change."[2] The student of the contemporary scene can note two idea systems that are directly counterposed: the law of nonintervention and the law of radical intervention. The laissez-faire approach, the natural-equilibrium position, has been demonstrated as impractical. In a similar manner, the Marxian emphasis on conflict, struggle and radical intervention also suffers from inadequacy. The only feasible alternative that emerges is the concept of planned change

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[1] *Robert Oppenheimer, "Prospects in The Arts and Sciences," Perspectives USA II, 1955, pp. 10-11.*

[2] *John Dewey, Liberalism and Social Action, (New York: G. P. Putnam & Son), 1955, p. 83.*

through which man "self-consciously and experimentally employs social technology to help solve the problem of men and societies."[3]

This study focuses on planned change, which Lippitt defines as "a conscious, deliberate, and collaborative effort to improve the operations of a human system, whether it be self-system, social system, or cultural system, through the utilization of scientific knowledge."[4] The application of systematic and appropriate knowledge to effect planned change is conceptually sound and operationally desirable, but our inability to bridge effectively the separation between theory and practice, unfortunately, is still too wide. The pure theorist and the anti-intellectual pragmatist fail to contribute to a workable middle position in which theory might be transformed and portrayed in a series of workable conceptualizations. Intellectual linkages between theory and practice are necessary prerequisites in developing practical theory and in forming the social dynamics of utilizing such knowledge in effecting change.

The dearth of significant data-collecting and experience-sharing on this process is evident from the available literature on the subject. Seymour B. Sarason notes:

> The fact is that we simply do not have adequate descriptive data on the ways in which change is conceived, formulated and executed within a school system. Obviously, there are many different ways in which it comes about, with differing degrees of success and failure, but it has hardly been studied. We lack adequate knowledge of the natural history of the change processes within the school culture.[5]

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[3] *Warren Bennis, Kenneth Benne & Robert Chin, The Planning of Change, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.), 1969, p. 3.*

[4] *Ronald Lippitt et al, Dynamics of Planned Change, (New York: Harcourt Brace & Co.), 1958, p. 7.*

[5] *Seymour B. Sarason, The Culture of the School & The Problem of Change, (Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon), 1971, p. 20.*

John Goodlad concurs, "Educational change, at even the most rudimentary levels, is one of those great, unstudied realms of education."[6]

The schoolman or the lay citizen concerned with educational change often finds himself understandably lost in the morass of technical theory. Granted that good theory underlies the best practice, and that much highly technical research in the change process is needed, when it comes to producing specific desired change for a specific educational system, these all-encompassing theories of change processes may not be found very practical in a particular situation.

Robert H. Guest, in reflecting on organizational change, observes: "At this stage of development [the ready and complete availability of change models, strategies and guidelines, etc.] what is needed most is more empirical material, more real life studies in ongoing organizations. Understanding the organizational dynamics through which change evolves requires the consideration of a time dimension." He then contends that "not enough is known about the process by which a purposive group shifts over time."[7] Arensburg argues for specific studies that "would give answers to the following questions, among others: (1) What degree of convergence must develop between the goals [values] of those persons being led and the goals of those planning and commanding? and (2) What activities of leadership initiate change, and once it has begun, what are the actions necessary to sustain it?"[8] Gouldner calls for further research on the process of change in ongoing organizations over a span of time."[9]

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[6] *John Goodlad, IDEA Reporter, (Melbourne, Florida), Fall 1969, p. 3.*

[7] *Robert H. Guest, Organizational Change: The Effect of Successful Leadership, (Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press), 1962, p. 2.*

[8] *Conrad H. Arensberg, Social Psychology at The Crossroads, (New York: Harper & Bros.), 1951, p. 349.*

[9] *Alvin W. Gouldner, Pattern of Industrial Bureaucracy, (Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press), 1954, p. 11.*

The aim of this study took early shape as an organized effort to consider the evidenced utilization and impact of the use of the professional change data in effecting change in an ongoing school setting. The objective will be to extract valuable working guidelines and directions for any educators who may face the task of effecting change. This objective will be approached through an analysis of an organization's activities, to determine the extent to which educational change theory was utilized and secondly, also to determine how the change process in that organization might have been enhanced through more effective utilization of available professional data.

OBJECTIVES

Specifically, the objectives of this study are:

1. To derive, after extensive review of the pertinent literature, a series of theoretical and critical factors in change.
2. To apply these critical factors as aids in tracing and analyzing the changes in the schools of Concord, Massachusetts, during the years 1965-1970.
3. To apply, via these critical change factors, a comparison between what actually transpired and what the professional literature would predict as normative in such situations.
4. To identify continuing problems and to employ the critical change factors in predicting likely strategies and solutions.

SELECTION OF A DISTRICT

Selecting a developmental case study approach limited to a single school district gave the researcher the opportunity to probe in sufficient depth over a sustained time period and thus to establish a cause-

relationship analysis. A series of general specifications were laid down as guidelines in selecting a district for the study:

(1) Evidence of sustained changes in curriculum, staffing patterns, use of time as a variable in the learning environment, variations on stereotyped pupil-teacher relationship, and generally a demonstrated openness in interpersonal relationships.

(2) New construction designs intended to implement new instructional patterns.

(3) Variations in reporting and communicating patterns with parents.

(4) Demonstrated value decisions, testifying to recognition of new roles for schools in a changing society.

(5) A general recognition, by Massachusetts Department of Education officials, of the innovative nature of the district.

(6) A charismatic image as an innovator in the immediate area.

(7) Utilization of a wide variety of input sources to promote change.

(8) A district willingness to expend additional funds to develop and sustain new programs.

The Massachusetts State Department of Education was contacted to obtain general recommendations. The suburban metropolitan Boston area was pre-selected as the site for this study. Schools nominated were within a 15-20 mile radius of Boston. Concord, Massachusetts, was selected because it generally met each of the eight criteria. A conference with the Superintendent of Schools and his assistant confirmed their willingness to participate in this study.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

(a) Significance

This study will be valuable in identifying significant change factors of immediate usefulness to an educational practitioner. It will, in addition, provide useful insight into the application of change theory in the working school environment. It is expected that the flexibility demanded by situational variables will demonstrate the requirement that the theoretical be interpolated with practical expediencies.

(b) Anticipated Findings

This study is expected to support the proposition that data and knowledge that pertain to the management of planned change and that are available in the professional literature are only partially and incidentally employed by practicing school administrators in effecting change in their schools. It is further expected that the probability of any change's achieving its objectives and being internalized will be enhanced through comprehensive utilization of available change theory.

(c) Limitation of the Study

The study of change in the Concord Schools during the years 1965-1970 is a microcosm that will not permit drawing broad generalizations having statistical validity. The expansive, exploratory nature of this study is expected, however, to provide insights that will help formulate a fruitful hypothesis, for the knowledge that a particular condition exists in a unique instance suggests a factor to look for in other cases. But this study is

made with full realization that a generalization drawn from a single case cannot be applied to all cases in a given population. The mode of investigation employed in this study can be a useful tool for future managers of planned change. In addition, negative evidence collected in a single case can be valuable in alerting others to modify their rationale and approaches.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of the professional literature dealing with the management of planned change. As the researcher proceeded through the extensive writings on this subject it became evident that the concerns seemed to cluster around certain main, central classifications. I have identified these main topics as change factors. Seven principal change factors emerged from the change literature. They are:

1. Organizational Health
2. Dealing with The Environment and The School Client System
3. Goal Clarity
4. Role and Influence of a Change Agents
5. Awareness and Utilization of the Change Process or a Change Model as a Guiding, Stabilizing Influence in Effecting Change
6. Concept of Self-Renewal
7. Effective Leadership Behavior

This chapter is sequentially organized to present data in support of the identification of these seven change factors.

These seven change factors are not presented as a mutually exclusive treatment of all the possible combinations or variations which might emerge from the change literature. Rather, for the specific purpose of this study, these change factors present a workable, utilitarian instrument to facilitate a review and analysis of change behavior in Concord during the period covered by this study.

Each change factor identified in this chapter will be utilized to provide a perspective against which to compare practice with strategies, and procedures identified as normative by the change writers. This comparison will provide a frame of reference for the analysis section in Chapter V.

This chapter defines change in terms of a planned, controlled activity. The probability of effective change management is then suggested as being more probable if one takes into account the principal critical change factors as identified in the professional literature. Each critical factor is supported by sub-topics and extensive cross references.

The simplest definition of change is that some alteration has taken place in something. Miles builds on this definition by specifying the alteration as related to goals, structures and process.[10] Robert Oppenheimer noted that "one thing that is new is the prevalence of newness, the changing scale and scope of change itself, so that the world alters as we walk in it. We need to recognize the change and learn what resources we have."[11] Contemporary debate has swung from change vs. no change to the methods that should be employed in controlling and directing forces in change. Dewey remarked that "history in being a process of change generates change not only in details but also in the method of directing social change."[12] How then to effect this change? Two idea systems, the law of non intervention and the law of radical intervention, are directly counterposed. History has given ample evidence to cause the rejection of both and to look at a means to plan and manage change.

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[10] *Matthew B. Miles, "Educational Innovation: The Organization as Context," Change Perspectives in Educational Administration, Max Abbot & John Howells, eds, (Auburn, Alabama: Auburn University), 1965, p. 75.*

[11] *Robert Oppenheimer, "Prospects in The Arts and Sciences," Perspectives USA II, 1955, p. 11.*

[12] *John Dewey, Liberalism and Social Action, (New York: G. P. Putman & Son), 1955, p. 83.*

Bennis views planned change as a link between theory and practice, between knowledge and action. He continues by noting that "the process of planned change involves a change agent, a client system and a collaborative attempt to apply valid knowledge to the client's problems."[13] Miles points out the need to look beyond process, as he notes "that any particular planned change effort is deeply conditioned by the state of the system in which it takes place."[14] He continues by observing that "it seems likely that the state of health of an educational organization can tell us more than anything else about the probable success of any particular change effort. Attention to organizational health ought to be priority one for any administration seriously concerned with innovations in today's environment."[15]

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #1 - Organizational Health

What constitutes a "healthy organization"? Clark claims that there are differences among management experts as to exactly what is a healthy organization. He states his own point of view that "An organization is healthy if its members observe certain unstated but quite uniform codes of behavior which they accept as normal things to do, provided these codes produce behavior which allows all levels of the organization to meet two basic but diverse requirements - maintenance of the status quo and growth. The healthy organization must afford groups as well as individuals chances to fulfill their tendencies and capacities for equilibrium and growth. It must do this for the individual, for small groups, for inter-group rela-

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[13] *Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne & Robert Chin, The Planning of Change, Sec.Ed., (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston Inc.), 1968, p. 65.*

[14] *Matthew B. Miles, "Planned Change and Organizational Health," Change Process in The Public Schools, Richard Carlson, ed. (University of Oregon), 1965, p. 11.*

[15] *Ibid, p. 13.*

tionships and for the total organization."[16] Miles describes the healthy organization as one which "not only survives in its environment (a setting which is rapidly changing its characteristics), but continues to cope adequately over the long haul, and continuously develops and extends its surviving and coping abilities. Short-run operations on any particular day may be effective or ineffective, but continued survival, adequate coping and growth are taking place."[17] Selznik lists five imperatives that have to be met if the organism is to survive and "grow." They are "(1) the security of the organization as a whole in relation to social forces in its environment, (2) the stability of the lines of authority and communication, (3) the stability of informal relations within the organization, (4) the continuity of policy and the source of its determination, and (5) a homogeniety of outlook with respect to the meaning and role of the organization."[18] Caplow reflects the traditional view of performance and satisfaction as the criteria of organizational success.[19] Bennis rejects this traditional view. He states:

> If we view organizations as adaptive, problem-solving, organic structures, then inferences about effectiveness have to be made, not from stated measures of output, though these may be helpful, but on the basis of the process through which the organization approaches problems. In other words, no single measurement of organizational efficiency or satisfaction - no single time-slice of organizational performance - can provide valid indicators of organizational health. An organization is healthy or unhealthy in relation to the ability to cope with change, with the future.[20]

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[16] *James V. Clark, "A Healthy Organization," The Planning of Change, Bennis, et al, p. 282.*

[17] *Miles, Change Process in The Public School, p. 17.*

[18] *Paul Selznick, "Foundations of The Theory of Organizations," American Sociological Review, 1948, Vol.13, p. 27.*

[19] *Thomas Caplow, "The Criteria of Organizational Success," Readings in Human Relations, Davis & Scott eds. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.) 1959, p. 56.*

[20] *Warren Bennis, Changing Organizations, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.) 1966, p. 43.*

Chris Argyris uses the concept of organizational effectiveness similarly to Miles' use of organizational health. He contends that organizational effectiveness hinges on an organization's ability to accomplish three essentials: (1) achieve its goals, (2) maintain itself internally, and (3) adapt to its environment.[21] Miles, synthesizing Argyris, Jahoda & J. V. Clark, develops a set of fairly durable "second-order" system properties that tend to transcend short-run effectiveness. The following eleven dimensions are presented by Miles as representative of a multiple-criterion approach to the assessment of health:

DIMENSION	OPTIMUM CONDITIONS
Task Clarity *(achieve its goals)*	1. People in the organization accept goals as achievable and appropriate. (goal focus)
	2. Goals are understood in terms of supportive behavior required to achieve them.
	3. Communication vertically, horizontally, and to and from the surrounding environment is open, continuous and relatively without distortion. (communication adequacy)
	4. The distribution of influence is relatively equitable. Collaboration rather than coersion is the mode of action. (power equilization)
Maintenance Needs *(maintains itself internally)*	1. The effective use of personnel so that they - as persons - feel "self-actualized," feel that they are growing and developing in their jobs. (resource utilization)
	2. Members feel attracted to the organization. They want to stay with it, be influenced by it and exert their own influence in the collaborative style suggested earlier. (cohesiveness)
	3. The presence of a general feeling of well-being - high morale which is contagious to others. (morale)

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[21] *Chris Argyris, Integrating The Individual and The Organization, (New York: John Wiley & Sons), 1964, p. 123.*

Self-Renewal *(adapt to its environment)*	1. Invent new procedures, identify new goals, to grow, develop and change, rather than remaining routinized and standard. (innovativeness)
	2. Balance organizational behavior in relationship to the environment. A healthy organization is not the tool or passive captive of external demands, but rather makes decisions after interaction and examination of its own goals and objectives. (autonomy)
	3. A healthy organization should be able to change, correct and adapt faster than the environment. (adaption)
	4. Active coping with identifiable problems with well-developed structures and procedures for problem-solving. (problem-solving adequacy)[22]

A consideration of organizational health could not be considered as complete or comprehensive without reflecting on the individual and his relationship with the organization. How people perform their role is critically important in determining the effectiveness [health] of organizations. Owens observes that "when we consider the individual person carrying out his unique role in an organization, we become concerned with the complex web of human involvement and its attendant behavior in organizational life. As the individual, with all his needs, drives and talents assumes his official role, he shapes that role to some extent and he is also shaped by it."[23] Lonsdale depicts,

> the levels of interaction of the individual and the organization as a series of concentric circles, ordered in such a manner that the boundaries of the various groups are permeable, permitting a wide range of interaction between individuals and groups. Because of this inter-relationship it is normal to expect variances in role perceptions, role expectations and role performances,

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[22]*Miles, Change Process in The Public Schools, pp. 17-22*

[23]*Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall), 1970, p. 70.*

> each resulting in problems in maintaining optimum organizational health. Because it is important to recognize the primacy of people and their psychological readiness to change or not to change, it is with individuals as well as organizations that the planner of change must give consideration.[24]

The literature offers specific guidance in relating the individual to the organization and hence to the total issue of organizational health. The Getzels-Guba Model of Organizational behavior conceptualizes that an organization establishes roles in which it expects its members to exhibit the kind of behavior which will contribute to the goals of the organization. This involves dealing with individual persons who have their own personality structure and needs. The interaction resulting from the dynamic interrelationship of the needs of the organization and the needs of the individual produces organizational behavior. Getzels reflected this in an equation which states that organizational behavior results from the frequency of interaction between the organizational role and the personality of the individual.[25]

In pursuing the issue of the individual and the personal dimension in organizational behavior, one encounters a solid body of data dealing with motivation and with why people participate in organizations. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory illustrate this point.

Maslow conceptualizes man as being motivated to action in the process of seeking to satisfy his needs. These needs are organized in a hierarchy as follows: 1) Physiological, 2) Safety and Security, 3) Affiliation, 4) Self-esteem, and 5) Self-actualization. The application to

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[24] *Richard C. Lonsdale, "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium," 1964 Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 143.*

[25] *Jacob Getzels, Administrative Theory in Education, (Chicago, Illinois: Univ. of Chicago Press), 1958, p. 156.*

organizational activities is that as man satisfies his lower-level needs, he can more fully involve himself in sophisticated, higher-level activities.[26] In a similar manner, Herzberg notes, as long as the individual is concerned with maintenance-hygiene needs he will be unable and unwilling to respond to motivating factors.[27]

The quid pro quo relationship between the individual and the organization produces a state of equilibrium presumably satisfactory and productive to both. A dysfunction develops when the needs of the individual are not recognized or accommodated or when role conflict develops. This dysfunction has the potential for far-reaching disruption in the state of organizational health.

The literature is concise and clear. Organizational health is an essential prerequisite to change and an important continuing consideration in later implementation and internalization of any change.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #2 - Dealing With The Environment and The School Client System

The school organization is an open social system in interaction with its environment. Kast defines this entity as a "dynamic interaction with the environment in which the system receives various inputs, transforms these inputs in some way and exports outputs. The receipt of inputs (money, pupils, materials, feedback) allows the open system to maintain a dynamic equilibrium. The open system adapts to its environment by changing the structure and process of its internal components."[28] Griffiths uses system theory as a model to investigate the problem of change in organiza-

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[26] *Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, (New York: Harper & Row), 1954, pp. 80-98.*

[27] *Frederick Herzberg, Work and The Nature of Man, (Cleveland, Ohio: The World Publishing Co.), 1966, p. 56.*

[28] *Freman E. Kast, et al, Education, Administration and Change, (New York: Harper Row & Co.), 1970, p. 113.*

tions. He describes the organization (a school system) as existing in an environment (supra-system) and having within it a sub-system (individual schools or the administrative apparatus of the organization). A change in any part of the total system produces a resultant change or influence in the interrelated components. Changes are reflected in feedback referring to the input and then affects succeeding outputs. Future conduct is influenced by adjustment to past performance.[29] According to Dill, most communities provide strong clues that help organizations build simplified models of what their environments demand and what the outcome of action will be. One set of clues is associated with environmental inputs. An effective administrator must learn to read clues and to make judgments pertaining to objectives and tasks which communities will not allow to be overruled.[30] Schien reflects on an organizational adaptive-coping cycle as a means of maintaining organizational effectiveness and still maintaining a responsiveness to the environment. Emphasis is on obtaining feedback on the success of any change through a sensing of the external environment.[31]

Neal Gross stresses the importance of community when he states, "More than any other formal organization that I can presently think of, an understanding of the adjustment of the school to its external environment is crucial for those who would guide us to innovations in education."[32] Gallaher reinforces this view by noting that "the most significant quality of the school as a formal organization is to keep in mind that it is a service organization. This means that the prime beneficiary of the

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[29] Daniel Griffiths, 63rd Yearbook National Society for The Study of Education, Part II, 1964, pp. 116-118.

[30] William R. Dill, "Decision Making," 63rd Yearbook National Society for The Study of Education, Part II, 1964, p. 207.

[31] Edgar Schein, Organizational Psychology, (New York: Prentice-Hall & Co.) 1965, pp. 93-104

[32] Neal Gross & Robert Herriott, Staff Leadership in Public Schools, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.), 1965, p. 47.

organization is the client group, which in turn becomes a crucial variable in determining the limits and kinds of authority that are developed, and the goal orientation that the organization will take." He goes on to reflect that "the task of professional functionaries is probably more difficult in service organizations than in any other kind. They must serve the collective interests of the client group and at the same time retain their authority and not become subservient to the demands of the client group."[33]

There can be little argument that community power structures influence educational policy and hence planned change. It is an unfortunate reality that many professional educators and lay boards of education do not have sufficient power to legitimize (make generally acceptable) major changes for schools. It becomes necessary to gain enough understanding of the power system (relative distribution of social power in decision making among interacting persons and groups) to permit the manager of change to make reasonably accurate assessment of what moves should be made to gain the support and sanction required for effective change.

In anthropology, cultural change is defined as reformulation in human behavior; the opposite of reformulation (change) is persistence, the maintenance of status quo. Change and persistence, anthropologists say, are universal features of any culture: furthermore, they are reciprocals of the same phenomena of cultural dynamics. Consequently, when one discusses change, he also considers persistence, whether he realizes it or not. An examination of man's history would show an emphasis upon persistence and stability, rather than upon change. A climate for change and its antecedents then becomes a priority concern.

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[33] *Arthur Gallaher, "Directed Change in Formal Organizations: The School System," Change Process in The Public Schools, 1965, pp. 47-48.*

There are many kinds of power systems always at work in any district. Common among the differing systems are the influentials (persons who exercise considerable influence). In addition, many leaders function to maintain the system. Formal and informal groups or subgroups permeate the system. Some of these groups are used by leaders and influentials for the cumulative or collective use of power. Certain beliefs about community living are espoused by influentials and other leaders. These beliefs influence the normative perception of community influentials and citizens concerning the kind of community and the kinds of school system desired. Citizen participation must be considered by educators with full knowledge that the variables surrounding such participation make it difficult to reliably predict behavior in decision making.

Ralph Kimbrough describes four types of community power structures:

1. Monopolistic Power Structure

   It exists where a group of influentials exercise a dominant - but not necessarily complete - influence over public policies. This structure may be formal, informal or both: furthermore, it may be tied in with several different satellite subsystems or "crowds." Opposition is sporadic and short lived. General citizen participation is relatively ineffective.

2. Multigroup Non-Competitive Structure

   This structure is often prevalent in rural districts embracing several small villages or towns. Each of these towns has a power structure. The influentials of these different structures do not interact in "running" the school district. Action for change involves co-opting the support of influentials of the different areas. This system is representative of the closed social system in which general public policy has a high degree of equilibrium.

3. Competitive Elite Structure

   This structure is usually characterized by regime conflicts. Power struggles often occur between groups and coalitions of influentials when a basic question, such as, "What kind of a town should ours be?" is asked. A high percentage of the

community leaders participate in decisions. This is characterized as an elite structure because many citizens are not effectively involved in decisions.

4. Pluralistic Power Structures

In a pluralism several fragmented power groups are involved in decisions. The influentials of these groups tend to be specialized with respect to their participation in decisions. Citizens are effectively involved in decisions of the political unit; usually much of the involvement is through membership in organized interest groups. Pluralism is more consistent with democratic ideals than are any of the other types mentioned.[34]

It is necessary to move beyond general systems theory to describe the differences among the power systems of local school districts. All political systems (school districts) have boundaries. The interaction of citizens within the boundaries is frequent as opposed to sporadic contact with those outside the boundary. The tendency is to maintain the boundaries by reacting to inputs so as to maintain the system direction toward equilibrium. A system that exerts much energy in boundary maintenance is better characterized by its closedness (resistance) than by its openness to change.

Rapidly changing population characteristics in suburban school districts tend to produce system openness. A redistribution of political power is facilitated by having a large influx in population whose basic political concepts differ from those of the indigenous population majority. Such a system will tend to react to inputs by a shift in its activity or a modification in its goals, that is to seek dynamic equilibrium by making needed changes.

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[34]*Ralph Kimbrough, "Political Structures and Educational Change," Designing Education for The Future No. 3, Morphat & Ryan, ed. (New York: Citation Press), 1967, pp. 115-142.*

The task of dealing with the community is well summed up by Everett Rogers. In referring to the managing of planned change, he declares:

> Frequently a limiting factor in educational decision making is the community served by the school. The public becomes interested in education only when the school system departs from what the public "knows" education should be. Educators often fail to keep their community informed about current trends and innovation in education. We tend to forget that these people are generally in the majority and that they can effectively block educational change. People are most comfortable with ideas that are familiar to them. If an effort is not made to make the majority of the public comfortable with the proposed change, to make them aware of the need for change, the public may resist the change and cause its rejection.[35]

The evidence in the literature is again clear and definitive. Changes in school systems must consider the environment and the school client system.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #3 - Goal Clarity

All systems, whether social or other (such as technical), are goal oriented: that is, they exist for certain purposes and attempt to act or perform accordingly. Not all systems explicate their purposes and keep them clearly in mind. Parsons points out that "the primacy of orientation to the attainment of a specific goal is used as the defining characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other types of social systems."[36] Argyris defines an organization as including the essential characteristic of "achieving specific objectives."[37] Miles attributes those special properties to schools that "cause them to be different than organizations in the most general sense. The problem of goal ambiguity makes it difficult to specify the output of educational organizations

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[35] *Everett M. Rogers & Lynne Svenning, Managing Change, (San Mateo, California: San Mateo County Bd of Education), 1969, pp. 56-57.*

[36] *Talcott Parson, "Suggestions for a Sociological Approach to The Theory of Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. I, September 1956, p. 238.*

[37] *Argyris, p. 120.*

very precisely." He continues to reflect that "this ambiguity and pseudo-consensus around school output measurement encourages the institutionalization and ossification of teaching procedures."[38] Utilizing the data presented in reference to the environment, change needs to be validated in terms of objectives. Rogers writes, "In defining the objectives toward which the change effort is directed, the manager of change makes a statement of intent or prediction of some potential outcome for an individual or an organization. The definition of objectives will make the task of evaluation much easier and will facilitate the understanding by the school board, the community, the school administration and the faculty."[39] Any statement of goals or objectives encounters immediate difficulty. Miles observes that "probably the only really essential feature of any elementary or secondary school is that it is a social arrangement which exists for the purpose of bringing about desirable changes in children."[40] He goes on to say that even this task is complicated by moralistic issues of "should" and "ought" and value conflicts relating to the school's role as either a conveyor of society or a change force in shaping a new society.

Regardless of the problems obvious in dealing with educational goal-setting, Robert Huefner reinforces their essential nature by stating: "Goals provide the common objectives by which the merits of alternative programs are weighed and by which conflict between programs are resolved. Goals also provide a relatively stable basic direction for the plan, around which programs can be adjusted to meet the changing circumstance without

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[38]Miles, Change Process in The Public Schools, Op. Cit., p. 22.
[39]Rogers, p. 63.
[40]Matthew Miles, "Some Properties of Schools as Social Systems," Change in School Systems, Goodwin Watson, ed., (Washington D.C.: National Training Laboratories), 1967, p. 2.

jeopardizing the basic integrity of the plan. To serve these functions, goals must be specific, well-considered, and consistent selections from realistic alternative goals."[41] Hansen supports the need for goal-setting by observing that, "Goals are of the utmost importance. For if change is to have any real thrust, it must have both force and direction. That is, the change must come out of the constellation of forces that necessitate or demand change, but it must be given the direction that only clear-cut goals can provide."[42]

Changing without goals is wandering without direction or purpose. Change can only be legitimatized in terms of goal clarity and purpose.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #4 - Role and Influence of a Change Agent

Chin sees planned change as "a deliberate and collaborative process involving change agent and client system. These systems are brought together to solve a problem or more generally to plan and attain an improved state of functioning in the client system by utilizing and applying valid knowledge."[43] Other writers give equal emphasis to the role of a change agent as an important ingredient in planned change. What is the role of change agent? Who has the potential to fill this role prescription? The literature is specific in dealing with these concerns. The literature generally accepts a collaborative relationship as the legitimate basis for the change agent-client association. Bennis establishes criteria for evaluating the nature and quality of this relationship. He poses the following questions:

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[41]Robert Huefner, "Strategies and Procedures in State and Local Planning," Designing Education for The Future No. 3, Morphet & Ryan, eds., (New York: Citation Press), 1967, p. 16.

[42]Kenneth H. Hansen, "Planning for Changes in Education," Designing Education for The Future No. 3, p. 28.

[43]Bennis, Benne & Chin, p. 66.

(1) How well is the relationship understood and veridically construed by both parties?

(2) To what extent do both parties determine the course and the fate of the planned change program?

(3) To what extent is the relationship open to examination and reconstruction by one or both parties? In other words, a deliberate and collaborative relationship can be optimized in a planned-change induction only when the following exist:

1. A joint effort that involves mutual determination of goals.

2. A "spirit of inquiry" - a relationship that is governed by data, publicly shared.

3. A relationship growing out of the mutual interaction of the client and the change agent.

4. A voluntary relationship between the change agent and the client, with either free to terminate the relationship after joint consultation.

5. A relationship where each party has equal opportunity to influence the other.[44]

Carl Rogers describes the change agent as working with the client system in a helping relationship which facilitates growth by others. Rogers assumes a similarity of goals between change agent and client. Given agreement on the goal to be achieved, the change agent develops a trusting, supportive relationship with the client.[45] Richard Walton argues that change, under conditions of polarized disagreement, may be realized only by the use of threat, power, or hostility. Walton asserts that the change agent must learn to accept and utilize coercive as well as collaborative stragegies to create effective change.[46] Chin agrees that change agents must be prepared to face conditions where collaborative strategies would be impossible to initiate or would be rejected as naïve and irrelevant by those in the situation. He describes conflict management as one

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[44] *Bennis, p. 26.*

[45] *Carl Rogers, "Characteristics of a Helping Relationship," On Becoming A Person, (Boston, Mass.: Houghton-Mifflin Co.) 1961, pp. 39-58.*

[46] *Richard E. Walton, "Two Strategies of Social Change and Their Dilemmas," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science 1, No.2, 1965, pp. 167-179.*

of the prerequisite skills required by a change agent. He concludes that the basic issue facing a change agent is how he operates in situations of dissension and conflict to help people in those situations to discover and affirm values of collaborations and commit themselves to its achievement.[47]

Who is the change agent? Ronald Havelock offers an all-inclusive list ranging from state officials, directors, county administrators, university professors, consultants, textbook salesmen, district and building administrators, teachers, board of education members, students and parents.[48] The implied opportunity for influence by each of these parties is clear. Brickell found that such innovations as had occurred in New York State had been initiated by the administrators.[49] Guest agrees with Brickell in principle by saying that "complex organizations being what they are, those at the head are primary change agents."[50] There appears to be consensus that chief administrators and middle management occupy key position to assume a change agent posture. The potential for others to assume the role is great.

Of accompanying concern in the literature is whether to utilize an outside or an inside change agent influence. Clark suggests that "change occurs as a consequence of an upsetting experience in a supportive environment. The principal may or may not be the best source for the upsetting experience for fear of creating role conflict."[51] An outsider brought in for the purpose of providing a "reality shock" is often a useful strategy.

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[47] *Bennis, Benne & Chin, pp. 149-157.*

[48] *Ronald G. Havelock, A Guide to Innovation in Education, (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Univ. of Michigan Press), 1970, p. 8.*

[49] *Henry M. Brickell, Organizing New York State for Educational Change, (Albany, New York: New York State Dept. of Education), 1961.*

[50] *Robert H. Guest, Organizational Change: The Effect of Successful Leadership, (Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press), 1962, p. 118.*

[51] *David L. Clark & Egon Guba, "An Examination of Potential Change Roles in Education," Paper read at National Institute for Study of Educational Change, 1967.*

Jung takes a much broader view by noting that "any person in the system, from the superintendent to a kindergarten pupil, has some potential as a change agent. Obviously different persons have vastly differing power and potential power to act as change forces within the system." He concurs with the use of external change agents by noting their usefulness in dealing with external forces or being allowed into the system for a temporary period to introduce change. Jung concludes by describing what he feels would be the most rational strategy for change, "namely, to involve the combined efforts of external and internal change agents working together to effect some desired result."[52]

Havelock offers practical guidelines for the role of the change agent, whether it be an external or internal influence. He states that "regardless of his formal job title and his position, there are three primary ways in which a person can act as a change agent. He can be a catalyst, a solution giver or a process helper." He observes that "these roles are not mutually exclusive, but are rather interrelated and that the stages occur simultaneously.[53]

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #5 - Utilization of the Change Process or A Change Model as A Guide in Effecting Change

The body of professional literature, while increasingly comprehensive, does not yet reflect an accepted theory or model for change. Sarason observes: "The fact is that we simply do not have adequate descriptive data on the ways in which change is conceived, formulated and executed within a school system. Obviously, there are many different ways in which it comes about, with differing degrees of success and failure, but it has

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[52]*Charles C. Jung, "The Trainer Change Agent Role Within a School System," Change in School Systems, p. 89.*

[53]*Havelock, p. 7.*

hardly been studied. We are frequently, therefore, in a position analogous to that of interpreting data from an experiment without any clear idea of the procedures employed."[54] Chin in part concurs with this observation. He says, "While we do not yet have a theory of changing which embodies testable hypothesis for the adequate guidance of empirical inquiry and research, current schemas of planned change may be judged of significant use for observers and students of its processes and of even greater use for steering the activities of change agents in the practice of their roles."[55]

A sampling of change processes in the literature includes:

Richard E. Walton lists five stages of social change --

1. Development of innovation - New ideas or material developments which provide alternatives to existing methods.
2. Diffusion of innovations - Disseminating information pertaining to innovations from the source to potential adopters.
3. Legitimation or Advocacy - Sanction of innovation by persons or systems of authority or influence.
4. Adoption - The decision to accept and incorporate an innovation into a social system.
5. Adaptation - The adjustment or adaptation of the system to the innovation.[56]

Walton indicates that the principal sources of educational innovations and means of diffusion are educational systems. But he says that since the school is controlled by and serves the educational needs of a community, it would be expected that the local school system would be more affected by and oriented toward its community norms than by other educational systems and organizations.

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[54] *Seymour B. Sarason, The Culture of The School and The Problem of Change, (Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.), 1971, p. 20.*

[55] *Bennis, Benne & Chin, p. 61.*

[56] *Walton, pp. 169-171.*

It seems implied by the article that the educational change process is very similar to the social change process.

Henry M. Brickell identifies three stages in educational innovation. They are:

1. Design - The translation of what is known about learning into programs for teaching.

2. Evaluation - The systematic testing of a new instructional approach to find what it will accomplish and under what conditions.

3. Dissemination - The process of spreading innovations into schools.

Brickell believes that failure to distinguish among the three phases is the most formidable block to educational improvement. He asserts that education is organized on the assumption that all phases can occur simultaneously in a single setting. He believes that a local school system not only cannot perform all three functions simultaneously, but has no interest in doing so.[57]

It should be noted that the change process traced by Brickell proceeds from the initiator of an idea to the schools or adopters. One might say that this is the change process from the initiator's or designer's point of view.

Gerard Eicholz and Everett M. Rogers have taken the adopter's point of view and identified the following stages --

1. Awareness - The individual learns of the existence of the innovation.

2. Interest - The indivual seeks more information and considers the merits of the innovation.

3. Evaluation - The individual makes a mental application of the innovation and weighs its merits for his particular situation.

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[57] *Brickell, pp. 50-62.*

4. Trial - The individual applies the innovation on a small scale.

5. Adoption - The individual accepts the innovation for continued use on the basis of a previous trial.[58]

A look at educational change which seems to include both points of view is given by Charles Jung and Ronald Lippitt. Their conceptualization of the change process is illustrated in Figure 1. This model not only conceptualizes the change process, but indicates its relationship to scientific knowledge and knowledge of the educational setting.

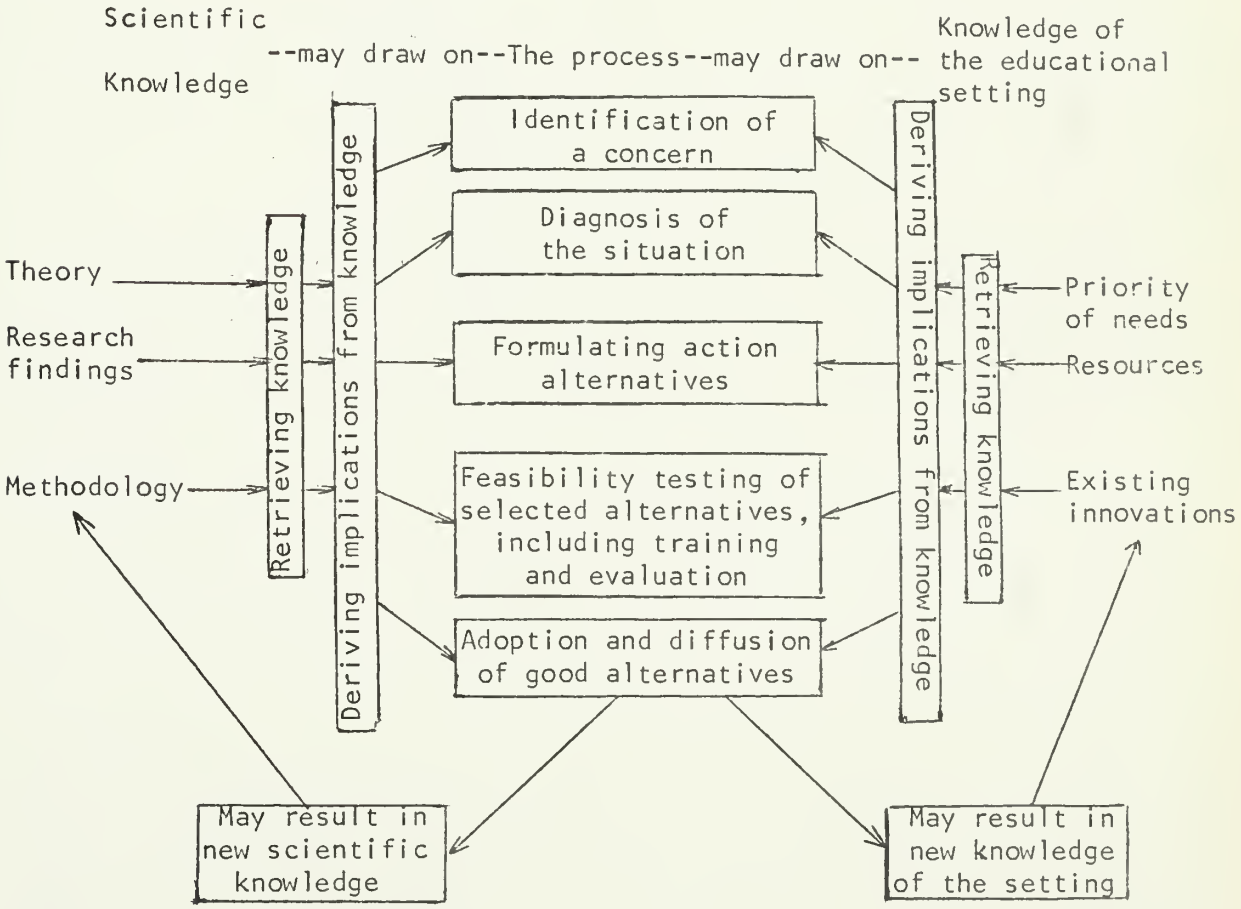

Figure 1

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[58] *Gerard Eicholz and Everett Rogers, "Resistance to The Adoption of Audio-Visual Aids by Elementary School Teachers," Innovation in Education, Miles, ed., (New York: Teachers College, Columbia Univ.) 1964, pp. 299-314.*

According to the model, scientific knowledge (theory, research, and methodology) and knowledge of educational setting (priority of needs, resources, and existing innovations) seldom provide direct answers concerning what should be done in dealing with a problem. The educator will need to derive implications from the findings that might help him meet the problem.[59]

Lippitt, Watson, and Westley identify the following stages:

1. The development of a need for change ("unfreezing"). A change agent discovers or hypothesizes a certain difficulty in a potential client system and offers his help.

2. The establishment of a change relationship - The development of a work relationship with the change agent.

3. The clarification or diagnosis of the client system's problem.

4. The examination of alternative routes and goals - Establishing goals and intentions of action.

5. The transformation of intentions into actual change efforts.

6. The generalization and stabilization of change ("freezing") - Making the change a permanent characteristic of the system and spreading the change to neighboring systems.

7. Achieving a terminal relationship - Terminal adjustments among client systems and change agents.[60]

Clark and Guba's classification schema of change processes is given in Figure 2. This schema has probably received more attention recently than any other conceptualization of the change process.

	RESEARCH	DEVELOPMENT		DIFFUSION		ADOPTION		
		INVENTION	DESIGN	DISSEM-INATION	DEMON-STRATION	TRIAL	INSTALLATION	INSTITUTIONA-LIZATION
ACTIVITY								

Figure 2[61]

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[59] *Charles Jung & Ronald Lippitt, "The Study of Change as a Concept in Research Utilization," Theory Into Practice V, February 1966, pp. 25-29.*

[60] *Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson & Bruce Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change, (New York: Harcourt Brace & Co.), 1958, pp. 110-124.*

[61] *David Clark & Egon Guba, "The Basis for Educational Improvement," Address, Kettering-USOE National Seminar on Innovation, Honolulu, July 1967.*

Donald W. Johnson sees the curriculum change process as including the following steps:

1. An existing program is evaluated with the use of standardized achievement tests to identify specific content or skills which students are not mastering.

2. Research literature is reviewed to determine if more effective methods have been developed that can be used to teach students the needed content or skills.

3. A revised course of study and teacher guides are developed, incorporating the modifications suggested by the research.

4. Additional equipment and materials needed for these modified instructional techniques are acquired.

5. In-service training meetings are conducted by administrative and supervisory staff in the use of the new equipment.

6. The new program is introduced to the classroom.[62]

The sampling could become exhaustive and yet serve no further purpose. The model or rationale is still for the change manager to select. Hansen, reflecting on the dilemma, comments, "Goals for desired change are essential, of course, and a clear sense of direction for change is vitally needed. Theoretical considerations loom large in developing both goals and directions, but a detailed theory of the change process itself may not be immediately essential. Perhaps instead of trying to think through and set forth an all-inclusive series of sequential steps which would attempt to define and explain the change process, it would be more fruitful to look at some of the elements involved in the change process - elements that can be either the source of tremendous impetus toward change or real stumbling blocks in accomplishing change in the educational system."[63]

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[62] *Donald W. Johnson, "Title III and The Dynamics of Educational Change in California Schools," Innovation in Education, pp. 157-182.*

[63] *Kenneth H. Hansen, "Planning and Changing," Designing Education For The Future No. 4, Morphet & Jenssen, eds., (New York: Citation Press), 1968, p. 63.*

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #6 - Self Renewal

Douglas McGregor reflecting on change in values, men, and organization notes, "We are today in a period when the development of theory within the social sciences will permit innovations which are at present inconceivable. The capacities of the average human being for creativity, for growth, for collaboration, for productivity (in the full sense of the term) are far greater than we have recognized. It is possible that the next half century will bring the most dramatic social changes in human history."[64] Tannenbaum & Davis, referring to organizations in general, declare, "Many organizations today are responding inadequately to the demands placed upon it from the outside and from within the organization. There is increasing need for experimentation, for learning from experience, for flexibility and adaptability, and for growth."[65] Bennis refers to revitalization and prescribes "a functional autonomy for growth and development which include: 1) An ability to learn from experience, to codify, and to store the learning; 2) An ability to 'learn how to learn,' that is, to develop methodologies for improving the learning process; 3) An ability to acquire and use feedback on its own performance, to develop a 'process orientation,' in short to be self-analytical; and 4) An ability to direct one's own destiny, similar to Gardner's 'self-renewal' process."[66] Goodwin Watson describes a design for continuous self-renewal, utilizing the following ten steps: Sensing; Screening; Diagnosing; Inventing; Weighing; Deciding; Introducing; Operating; Evaluating; and Revising. He notes that "success in any program of self-renewal depends upon goal and cognitive

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[64] *Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.), 1967, p. 244.*

[65] *Robert Tannenbaum & Sheldon Davis, "Values, Men, and Organizations," Industrial Management Review, Vol 10 No. 2, Winter 1969, p. 3.*

[66] *Bennis, p. 206.*

clarity, emotional involvement and on social structures, which will encourage and sustain the desired attitudes."[67]

Ronald Havelock speaks of developing a self-renewing capacity in client systems. He describes four built-in features of this capacity: 1) There should be a positive attitude toward innovation in general. 2) The client system should have an internal subsystem specifically devoted to bringing about change. 3) It should have an active inclination to seek external resources. 4) It should have a perspective on the future as something to plan for.[68] Watson and Glaser support this premise by stating, "Following any important change comes a period during which the new equilibrium is being stabilized. Yet that condition too is only temporary. The organization that has accepted an innovation may need a breathing spell in which to consolidate what it has learned. But if the organization is geared to continued growth, its members will value forward-moving change as a recurrent and desirable phenomenon. From the plateau on which equilibrium is regained, the cycle of change can be launched again.[69]

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #7 - Leadership Effectiveness

The problem of leadership has been one of man's major concerns since the days of antiquity. Leadership was a matter of concern in the days when Alexander set out with a small band of Greeks to conquer the world, when Caesar led his troops across the Rubicon, and when Columbus set out with a mutinous crew in leaky boats to discover a "New World."

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[67] *Goodwin Watson, Change in School Systems, pp. 106-115.*
[68] *Havelock, p. 153*
[69] *Goodwin Watson & Edward Glaser, "What Have We Learned About Planning for Change," Management Review, November 1965, p. 46.*

Literally hundreds of leadership studies have been conducted during the past two decades. However, there is at present no universally accepted theory of leadership, that is what leadership actually is or what it should be. James V. Spotts observed that "there were two major problems which seemed to have caused behavioral scientists the most trouble, the first is that it has been extremely difficult for investigators to separate and disentangle their assumptions about what leadership should be from the straightforward research on the question of what consequences follow specific leadership practices." He continued, "Investigators have begun to deal with the value question in empirical terms. Thus leadership is increasingly being defined in operational terms such as behavior that increases production and employees' morale or decreases turnover, absenteeism, and so on." He viewed the second problem as "that of trying to find acceptable scientific definitions for terms like leader and leadership."[70] While it is beyond the scope of the presentation to review even cursorily the mass of research findings and theoretical positions which have been published, it is important to establish a workable definition of leadership as an important variable in the process of planned change.

Peter F. Drucker points out that managers (business leaders) are the basic and scarcest resource of any business enterprise. He illustrated this premise by citing business failures which he concluded were attributable to ineffective leadership.[71] Hersey and Blanchard, accepting this premise, state "the successful organization has one major attribute that sets it apart from unsuccessful organizations: dynamic and effective leadership."[72] Robert Guest, in his text Organizational Change: The

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[70] James V. Spott, "The Problem of Leadership: A Look at Some Recent Findings of Behavioral Science Research," Behavioral Science and The Manager's Role, (Washington D.C.: National Training Labs.) 1969, p. 136.

[71] Peter F. Drucker, The Practice of Management, (New York: Harper & Row), 1954.

[72] Hersey and Blanchard, p. 59.

Effect of Successful Leadership, utilizes the same premise. The transfer of this concept to education and the management of educational change is supported by Brickell in his study of educational change in New York State.

George R. Terry defined leadership as "the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives."[73] Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell declare that "leadership is influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal."[74] Hersey and Blanchard observe, "A review of other writers reveals that most management writers agree that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition of leadership it follows that leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and the situation - L=f [L,f,S]."[75]

The dimensions of leadership have received extensive study. The Ohio State Leadership Study narrowed the description of leader behavior to two dimensions: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to "the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group and endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure." On the other hand, consideration refers to "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff."[76]

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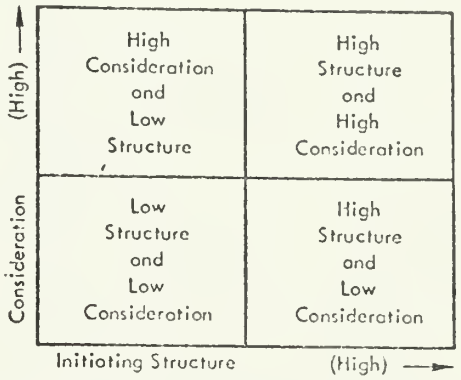
[73] George R. Terry, Principles of Management, (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin Publishing Inc.), 1960, p. 493.

[74] Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell, Principles of Management, 2nd Ed., (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.), 1959, p. 435.

[75] Paul Hersey & Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc.), 1969, p. 60.

[76] Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents, (Chicago, Ill.: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago), 1959, p. 4.

Initiating structure seems to be task oriented. The dimension emphasizes the needs of the organization. Consideration is relationship-oriented and tends to emphasize the needs of the individual. Leader behavior was plotted on two separate axes rather than a simple continuum. Four quadrants were developed to show various combinations of initiating structure and consideration.



The Ohio State leadership quadrants[77]

Studies of the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan identified two concepts which they called employee orientation and production orientation. These two orientations parallel the Ohio State leadership dimensions of initiating structure and consideration.

Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton utilized both studies in their Managerial Grid. In the Managerial Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production (Task) and concern for people (Relationship) are located in the four quadrants identified by the Ohio State Studies.

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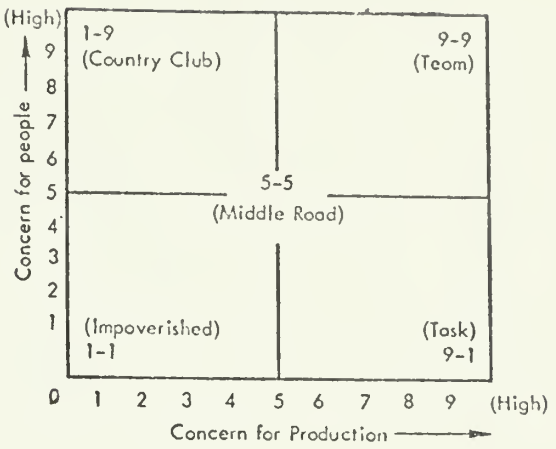
[77]*Hersey & Blanchard, p. 66.*



The Managerial Grid leadership styles[78]

The five leadership styles are described as follows:

Impoverished - Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

Country Club - Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

Task - Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Middle-of-the-Road - Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

Team - Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.[79]

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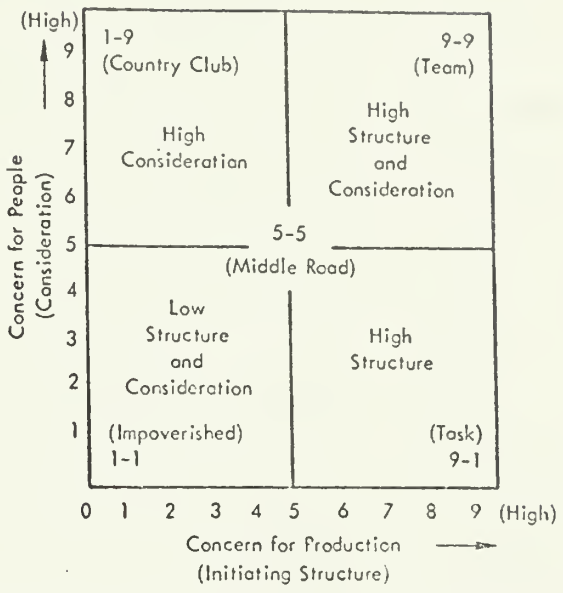
[78] *Hersey & Blanchard, p. 67.*

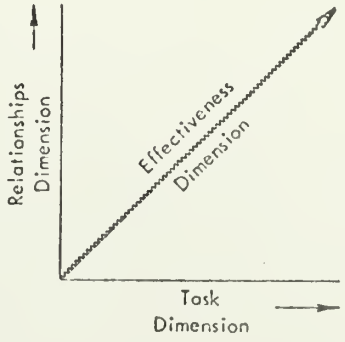
[79] *Robert R. Blake, et al, "Breakthrough in Organizational Development," Harvard Business Review, November-December 1964, p. 136.*

Hersey and Blanchard merge the two theories in the following diagram:



Merging of the Ohio State and the Managerial Grid theories of leadership[80]

William J. Reddin added a dimension of effectiveness to the dimensions of task (Production/Initiating Structure) and relationships (Concern for People/Consideration). He recognized that the effectiveness of a leader depends on how his leader personality interrelates with the situation in which he operates. He adds an effectiveness dimension to the two dimensional model. This is illustrated as follows:



Adding an effectiveness dimension[81]

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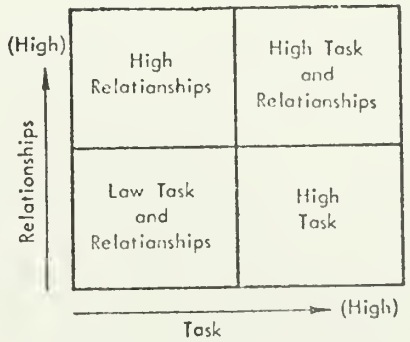
[80] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 68.*
[81] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 68.*

Hersey and Blanchard adopted from the definitions of Initiating Structure (task) and Consideration (relationships) developed by Stogdill and Coons' work (Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement) with the Ohio State Leadership Studies. They describe leadership styles, derived from the task and relationship dimensions, as follows:

> High Task - With this leader personality, an individual is seen by others as high on task but low on relationships. He seems to be more concerned about the task at hand than he is about the personal feelings and satisfactions of his followers. He appears to emphasize the task aspects of productivity viewing members as tools to accomplish his own personal goals or the goals of his organization.
>
> High Task and Relationships - With this leader personality, an individual is seen by others as high on both task and relationships. He appears to emphasize getting the task done, but not at the expense of the individuals in his group. He seems to set high standards but takes interest in everyone, accepting their individuality.
>
> High Relationships - With this leader personality, an individual is seen by others as high on relationships but low on task. He appears to have a more overt concern for the needs of the individuals in the group than the task to be accomplished. He seems to feel that every individual is a human being and therefore treats everyone as if he were important. He tends to emphasize maximizing the support and development of his subordinates' potentials rather than maximizing productivity.
>
> Low Task and Relationships - With this leader personality, an individual is seen by others as low on both task and relationships. He appears as a leader who allows his followers to direct their own activities and does not spend much time in developing personal relationships with them.



The basic leader behavior styles[83]

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[83] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 74.*

They then proceed to develop the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model, which they acknowledge was greatly influenced by Reddins' 3-D Management Style Theory.

The theory advocated by this model is supported by Reddin who observes, "A useful theoretical model must allow that a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation."[84] Koontz and O'Donnell concur. They observe, "The manager must be much like the musician who changes his techniques and approaches to obtain the shading of total performance desired."[85] This concept led Hersey to define adaptive leader behavior as follows: "The more a manager adapts his style of leader behavior to meet the particular situation and the needs of his followers, the more effective he will tend to be in reading personal and organizational goals."[86]

The term effective requires explanation. Hersey and Blanchard observe, "A manager could be successful but ineffective, having only short-run influence over the behavior of others. On the other hand, if a manager is both successful and effective, his influence tends to lead to long-run productivity and organizational development."[87] This definition makes a special point of emphasizing the need to look beyond productivity or output in evaluating organizational effectiveness. Likert refers to a set of intervening variables similar to the concerns listed in Change Factor #1, Organizational Health. These variables are concerned with building and developing the organization and tend to be long-term goals. Effective-

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[84] William J. Reddin, "The 3-D Management Style Theory," Training and Development Journal, April 1967, pp. 8-17.

[85] Koontz and O'Donnell, P. 435.

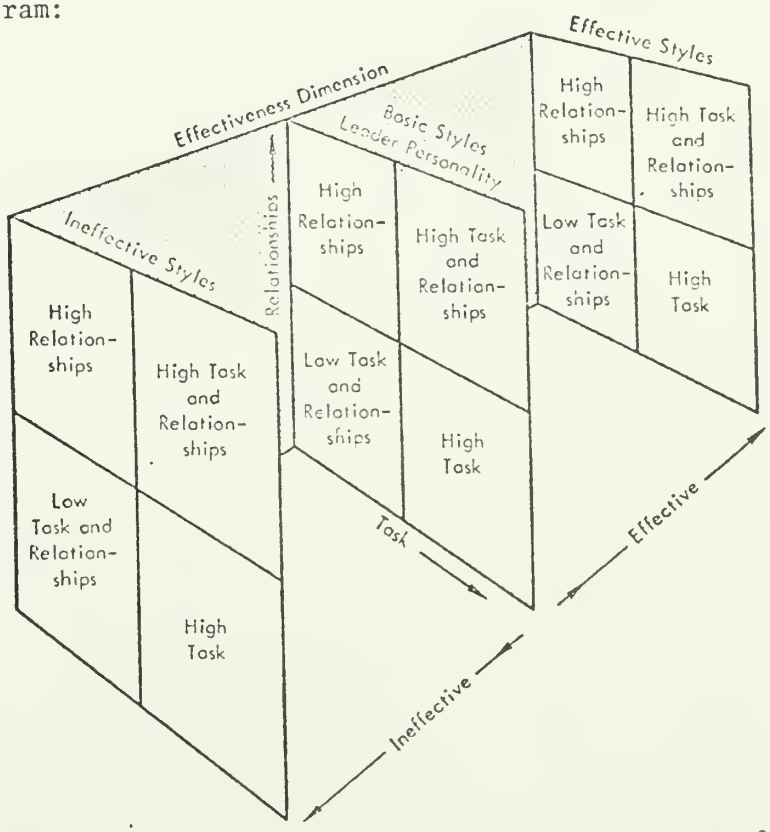
[86] Paul Hersey, Management Concepts and Behavior: Programmed Instruction for Managers, (Little Rock, Arkansas: Marvern Publishing Co.), 1967, p. 15.

[87] Hersey and Blanchard, p. 85.

ness has both a short-term and a long-term dimension which in turn reflects a concern for the organization (output) and the individuals making up the organization (intervening variables).[88]

The emerging Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model is predicated on the concept that effectiveness results from a leader using a behavior style which is appropriate to the demands of the environment. This environment consists of the leader, followers, and the other situational elements of the organization. Hersey and Blanchard conclude that "an effective leader must be able to diagnose the demands of the environment, and then either adapt his leader personality to fit these demands or else develop the means to change some or all the variables."[89]

The Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model is portrayed in the following diagram:



The Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model[90]

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[88] *Renis Likert, New Patterns of Management, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co.), 1961, p. 2.*

[89] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 93.*

[90] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 77.*

They note in explanation that:

> By adding an effectiveness dimension to the task and relationships dimensions of earlier leadership models, we are attempting to integrate the concepts of leader style with situational demands of a specific environment. When the style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when his style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed ineffective.
>
> If the effectiveness of a leader behavior style depends upon the situation in which it is used, it follows that any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. The difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader, but the appropriateness of this behavior to the situation in which it is used. You might think of the leader's basic style as a particular stimulus, and it is the response to this stimulus that can be considered effective or ineffective. This concept is illustrated in the diagram of the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model.
>
> The middle quadrants represent the four basic leader behavior styles described and illustrated on page 38; the left quadrants illustrate the four basic styles when they are ineffective (used in an inappropriate situation); and the right quadrants illustrate the four basic styles when they are effective (used in an appropriate situation).[91]

Some of the environmental variables the leader must be able to appraise are:

Leaders' Personality
Leaders' Expectations

Followers' Personality
Followers' Expectations

Superiors' Personality
Superiors' Expectations

Associates' Personality
Associates' Expectations

Organizations' Personality
Organizations' Expectations

Job Demands

Time - Short term versus long term demands

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[91] *Hersey and Blanchard, pp. 76-77.*

Fred E. Fiedler, in his Leadership Contingency Model, described three major situational variables which seem to determine whether a given situation is favorable or unfavorable to a leader: 1) his personal relations with the members of his group (leader-member relations); 2) the degree of structure in the task which the group has been assigned to perform (task structure); and 3) the power and authority which his position provides (position power).[92] This suggests that the situational elements confronting a leader can be modified to fit his style. His ability to diagnose and make behavioral adjustments will constitute in large measure what his effectiveness will be.

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[92]*Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.), 1967.*

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

The purpose of this chapter is to present a rationale and justification from the professional literature in defense of the descriptive-research, or case-study, approach used in this project. The second portion of this chapter deals specifically with the methodology and procedure used in compiling this study. A detailed explanation accompanies each step in the procedure.

RATIONALE FOR CASE STUDY APPROACH

Van Dalen describes a case study as one in which "an educator makes an intensive investigation of a social unit. He gathers pertinent data about the past experiences, present status and environmental forces that contribute to the individuality and behavior of the unit. After analyzing the sequences and interrelationship of these factors, he constructs a comprehensive and integrated picture of the social unit as it functions."[93] Berelson and Steiner offer a simpler definition. They describe a case study as "a carefully recorded story or account of something that actually happened. It represents an extensive examination of many characteristics of the unit, usually over a long period of time."[94] The legitimacy of the case study method as a research technique is validated by John Best and Carter V. Good. Best writes:

> A descriptive research study may be categorized as either of two terms, survey and case study. The survey is extensive and cross-sectional, dealing with a relatively large number of cases at a

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[93] *Deabold Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.), 1962, p. 218.*

[94] *Bernard Berelson & Gary Steiner, Human Behavior, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.), 1964, p. 27.*

> particular time, and yielding statistics that are abstracted from particular cases. The case study is intensive and longitudinal, analyzing carefully a single case or a limited number of typical cases. The analysis is detailed and complete, noting change, growth, or development in the life cycle, or an important part of the life cycle of the case under consideration.[95]

He continues, "The process of descriptive research goes beyond mere gathering and tabulation of data. It involves an element of interpretation of the meaning or significance of what is described. Thus, description is often combined with comparison or contrast, involving measurement classification, interpretation, and evaluation."[96]

Carter Good, in his text Introduction to Educational Research, concurs with Best in defining descriptive research and its utilitarian value to the educator. He offers a useful rationale of the case study (descriptive research) as valid educational research. Good states:

> Much of what is considered educational research would be classified as development, demonstration or operations research. Since education is certainly an applied field, this must be an important area. This is research of a type which works day in and day out to help the teacher, or the principal or agencies in authority over school systems. Then whether our orientation is science or practice, desiring as researchers to be orderly and systematic, we justifiably examine the paraphernalia with which we work. As long as such examination of our techniques, our instruments of measurement, our devices of analysis, or other activities of research is gendered by their usefulness in the solution of problems, we are certainly justified in this process. We could easily unbalance our view of the scope of educational research by limiting our discussion to techniques and methods.[97]

The case study (descriptive research) approach offers the most appropriate mode of achieving the objectives outlined in Chapter I.

The next task was the establishment of specific guidelines for case development. Glenn L. Immegart's Guide for the Preparation of Instruc-

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[95] *John W. Best, Research in Education, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.), 1959, p. 112.*

[96] *Ibid, pp. 102-103*

[97] *Carter V. Good, Introduction to Educational Research, (New York: Appleton, Century, Drofts, Inc.), 1959, p. 7.*

tional Case Materials in Educational Administration, University Council for Educational Administration, Columbus, Ohio, provided valuable guidance in establishing a rationale for case development, data gathering and general writing techniques.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology employed in this case study is specifically designed to enable the researcher to study the extent of utilization of change theory and relating data in effecting educational change in an on-going school district setting, specifically, Concord, Massachusetts. A survey of the professional literature as reflected in Chapter II identifies seven critical change factors as commonly accepted by writers and students of the planned-change process. These seven critical change factors will subsequently serve as a screen to analyze the management of the change process and the effectiveness of leader behavior in bringing about change. This analysis will either sustain or disprove the hypothesis that data and knowledge pertaining to the management of planned change and available in the professional literature are only partially and incidentally employed by practicing school administrators in effecting change in their schools. It is further assumed that the probability of any change's achieving its objectives and being internalized will be enhanced through comprehensive use of available change theory.

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

1. Three critical incidents of change have been identified for analysis in this study. A critical incident is defined as an act, an event, a behavior on the part of a person or a group of persons, which is perceived by others as causing a significant change in their

professional behavior. By limiting the study to the consideration of three critical incidents, the writer was afforded ample opportunity to test the assumptions stated in the Anticipated Findings, and still avoid the massiveness of a sequential, chronological study. The three critical incidents are not intended to be the exclusive source of data for the analysis prescribed in Chapter V. While the three critical incidents do serve as major postholes to facilitate data collection, the researcher notes at this time that behaviors and events which cannot immediately be categorized with one of the three critical incidents are revealed through the process of data collection. This associative data provides both valuable additional and supportive evidence for a more comprehensive analysis.

2. A preliminary survey of persons each of whom served as the chief school officer in Concord during the years 1965-1970 identifies three individuals occupying the position. The researcher made the decision to identify one critical change incident for each superintendent. Each incident is developed to report its inception, development and implementation. The narrative description of each change incident was designed to reflect:

   (a) What was the specific change?

   (b) What were the circumstances and processes leading up to the change [organizational health] [goal clarity]?

   (c) Who was chiefly responsible for influencing and making the change [change agent]?

(d) How was the change made [process]?

(e) How did the staff and the community participate in effecting the change [organizational health and community]?

(f) What were the results or problems created by the change [process]?

(g) Has the change persisted? Has it been evaluated? Revised? Fully internalized? [self-renewal and process]

(h) Have secondary effects resulted from the change? How were these handled? [process]

Each question is designed to provide data in support of the subsequent change-factor analysis. Following each question is an item-analysis reference to a specific change factor.

3. A biographical narrative of each chief school officer, his activities and evidences of leadership behavior in Concord is included as the first portion of Chapter IV. The demonstrated examples of leadership behavior and style, combined with a comprehensive description of change incidents, provides sufficient data to ascertain the effectiveness of the utilization of change theory.

Hersey and Blanchards' Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model will be applied in Chapter V to analyze the leadership behavior and effectiveness of the superintendents previously referred to.

DATA SOURCES

Two types of primary sources were used: written and human resources. The written sources included school records, school committee minutes, publications of the school district, newspaper articles, editorials and letters to the editor in the local weeklies. Detailed scrapbooks main-

tained in the Concord District offices were consulted as sources for all of the above written sources except minutes of the School Committee, which were filed separately, and publications of the district, which were also kept separately.

Human resources included present and past members of the Concord professional staff; present and past members of the School Committee; parents and residents of the community and professional consultants who worked in the district during the period covered by the study. A detailed list of persons interviewed individually in Appendix A.

QUESTIONNAIRE

A Critical Incident Questionnaire was utilized, with the entire staff as the original source to identify critical incidents. The intent in using the questionnaire was to identify for analysis those changes perceived by the professional staff as being most influential in causing teacher behavioral changes and in turn influencing the instructional environment for pupils in the district.

A second questionnaire was used to obtain community reaction to changes implemented during 1965-1970. Procedure for the use of this questionnaire will be treated in detail subsequently. Copies of both questionnaires are in Appendix B.

INTERVIEWS

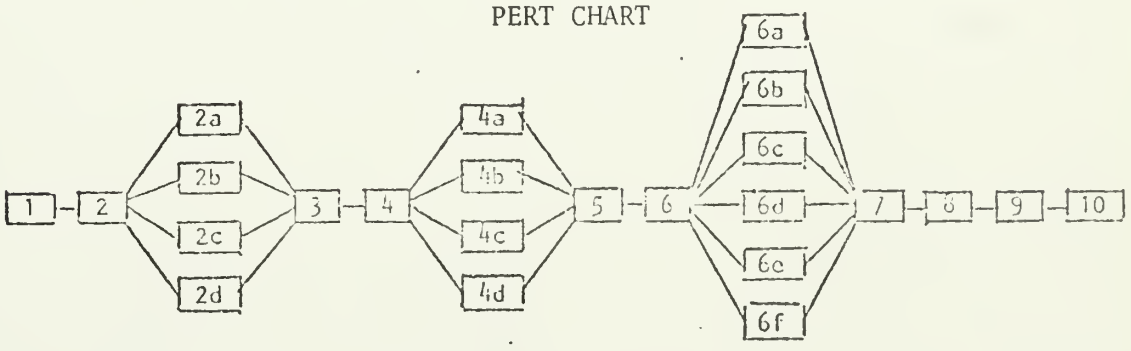
Personal interviews comprised the principal data source of information relating to the three critical change incidents. Individual interviews were also the prime data source in dealing with the leadership behavior and styles of the three superintendents included in the study.

The researcher recognized that while individual perceptions were frequently contrapositive, they did in fact reflect reality as that person perceived and lived it. The task of the researcher was not to select which view most persons accepted as reality, but rather to include the various realities and perceptions held by individuals involved in the study, so that the true environment might be faithfully reconstructed.

A series of base questions were asked in the original interviews. A list of these questions is contained in Appendix C. Additional open-ended questions were asked as the situation dictated and as the need for certain specific information became obvious.

PROCEDURE

A PERT Chart was designed as part of the dissertation proposal. The steps in the flow of the chart were followed as originally presented. The following chart and specific explanations for each step comprise the process of data collection, compilation, writing and subsequent analysis.



1. The original proposal for the study was submitted to the Concord Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Ralph Sloan, on February 25, 1971. Copies of the proposal were reviewed by Dr. Sloan and Mr. Robert Diamond, Assistant Superintendent for Instruction. The total

procedure was reviewed with them one week later. Approval for the study was granted on March 3, 1971.

The researcher met with district administrators on March 10, 1971, to review purposes and procedures for the study. Questions were answered and procedures for communication established.

2. The Critical Incident Questionnaire was distributed to each member of the professional staff by the building principals at faculty meetings on Monday, March 15. All members of the professional staff, including principals and assistant principals, were provided questionnaires to complete and return. Principals explained to their staffs the purposes and ultimate function of the questionnaires. Teachers were urged to answer completely and honestly and, above all, to have the questionnaire reflect only their perceptions. The questionnaires were collected and returned to Mr. Diamond's office. The researcher picked them up on Friday, March 19.

A second questionnaire was distributed to a selected group of parents identified and nominated by the building principals. Each principal was asked to identify ten parents who had been active and involved in school life and who had demonstrated a concern for education generally. Equal distribution of program partisans and program critics was requested. Each parent was mailed a questionnaire, a letter of explanation and a self-addressed stamped envelope for return of the completed questionnaire. Sixty questionnaires were mailed; thirty-six were returned with parent replies.

3. The return and subsequent analysis of the questionnaires from the professional staff reflected the following data. These results are included at this time because they provide the basis for the final selection of the three critical incidents of change later utilized as one of the major departure points for analysis.

S C H O O L	# of Staff	# of Returns	%
Alcott	31	18	58
Wheeler/Thoreau	31	22	70
Ripley	24	19	79
Willard	27	25	92
Middle School	69	47	68
Concord-Carlisle High School	87	67	77
	269	201	74%

The following critical incidents were identified most frequently:

INCIDENT	Elementary	Middle School	High School	Total
Open Space Program	56	10	1	67
Modular Scheduling	22	48	2	72
Reporting Changes	32	1	0	33
Faculty Senate	16	2	0	18
Multi-Age Grouping	24	0	0	24
Individualized Learning Center	28	0	0	28

Other incidents were cited less frequently.

The elementary staff identified the following:

Use of resource areas	2
Eleventh month	2
M E T C O	6
Change in Superintendent	13
Collective Bargaining	5
Paraprofessionals	5
Team Teaching	7

The Middle School identified with less frequency the following:

Resource Centers	7
Change in Superintendent	3
House Plan	9
Mini Courses	6
New JHS principal	2

The staff at the Concord-Carlisle High School identified the following:

Elective Program	21
House Masters	32
Abolish Study Halls	37
Eliminate Dress Code	3
Smoking Area	21

The preliminary list of critical incidents developed as follows:

1. Modular-Flexible Scheduling - Middle School
2. Open-Space Program - Elementary Schools
3. Reporting Changes - Elementary Schools
4. Multi-Age Grouping - Elementary Schools
5. Individualized Learning Center - Elementary Schools
6. Change in Superintendents - District Wide
7. Abolishment of Study Halls - Senior High School
8. Established House Masters - Senior High School

4. A review of primary written sources, particularly newspaper articles and school publications, disclosed the following mentioned most frequently:

1. Modular-Flexible Scheduling
2. Open-Space Program
3. Reporting Change
4. Individualized Learning Center
5. Change in Superintendents

5. In the original dissertation proposal, the researcher reserved the right to substitute a critical incident identified in the search of primary sources (written and human resources) in lieu of an incident identified via the questionnaire. The basis for this decision would be the probability of the replacement incident affecting the behavior of those involved in a significant manner. In the course of selecting the final critical-change incidents, he found it unnecessary to exercise that privilege except in the broadest sense.

A closer examination of change incidents reported from Concord-Carlisle High School did not disclose any change of magnitude sufficient to warrant or justify study and analysis at this time. Concord-Carlisle High School, throughout the period of this study (1965-1970), made only one change which would be within the time boundaries of this project, namely the appointment of House Masters. The writer therefore exercised the prerogative stated earlier by excluding any change incidents from the senior high school level. Additional comment on the high school program will be contained in Chapter VI - Observations and Conclusions.

The change in superintendents throughout the period was eliminated as a separate incident. Their influence and impact on change are portrayed in a section in Chapter IV which describes the tenure, the leadership behavior and the influence on change of each chief school officer during 1965-1970.

The selection of the open-space program and modular-flexible scheduling in the Middle School as critical incidents to be included in the study became obvious. The open-space program developed under the leadership of Dr. Virginia Biggy. Modular-flexible

scheduling had its beginnings and initial implementation during the superintendency of Dr. Sayre Uhler. It remained to identify a critical change incident that developed under Dr. Robert Ireland. The Reporting Committee and the eventual changes in the elementary reporting system became the most obvious choice. It was identified by the staff as of particular significance; secondly, it involved larger staff behavioral changes, together with a re-normative re-educative process for parents.

The final critical incidents to be included were:

Reporting Change	Dr. Robert Ireland
Open-Space Program	Dr. Virginia Biggy
Modular-Flexible Scheduling in the Middle School	Dr. Sayre Uhler

6. Once critical incidents were identified, the next sequence became the collection of data. Personal interviews became the prime source of filler data to understand the cause-effect relationships of the various change incidents. The reader is referred to the earlier section on Interviews in this chapter for guidelines considered in conducting interviews. The majority of interviews consumed 30-45 minutes, with the original list of questions exhausted and an open-ended technique employed. There were requirements for return interviews with individuals interviewed in the early phases of the study. This was accomplished primarily by telephone contact.

The teachers interviewed were nominated by building principals, with the following guidelines established as selection criteria:

(a) 3-4 teachers per building.

(b) Two teacher to have served in the district for the total time period covered by the study.

(c) One or two teachers to have served in the district for at least 2-3 years prior to June, 1970.

(d) A willingness to share in an open manner their perceptions and experiences.

The names of teachers interviewed appear on a list at the end of this chapter.

The guidance and advice of the central office administration was solicited in selecting members of the School Committee for interviewing. It was eventually decided that three members would be interviewed. Their names and dates of service are included at the end of the chapter.

A similar approach was used in arranging parent interviews. Ten parents who returned questionnaires were questioned as to their willingness to participate in a more exhaustive interview situation. Their names also appear at the end of this chapter.

All of the administrators, except those at the high school, were interviewed. Two consultants were similarily interviewed.

7. The next task was the compilation of sequential events in each of the critical incidents in the study. Follow-up interviews and a re-examination of written sources were frequently required to collect more data. The completed critical incidents and the leadership portraits are contained in Chapter V.

8. Each incident and the leadership behavior of the chief school officers became materials to be screened through the filter provided by the seven critical-change factors. This analysis is contained in Chapter V.
9. It became obvious to the writer that the design of the study did not permit pertinent observations and summation beyond the original constraints of the study. Chapter VI contains observations and conclusions which emerged from dealing with the process of change as practiced in Concord. There were numerous perceptions and observations voiced by the staff and the community which had no place in the formal design.

CHAPTER IV

CRITICAL CHANGE INCIDENTS

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. The first is to present a biographical vignette of each of three individuals who occupied the superintendency during the period covered in this study. Because of the close inter-relationships which developed as they interacted with each other and with the professional staff, it is unlikely that these administrators could be adequately dealt with separately. The intent is to portray their leadership styles and behavior so that subsequent analysis might determine their influence and effectiveness in bringing about educational change.

The second purpose of this chapter is to describe a critical incident of change directly attributable to each of the three leaders previously cited. The definition of a critical incident and the procedure for selecting each was previously described in Chapter III. Each of the following critical incidents provides a detailed data source to facilitate subsequent analysis in Chapter V. It is important to note again that these critical incidents are not the exclusive source of information to be dealt with in the analysis. Additional data sources are specified in Chapter III. Each of the critical incidents has been developed so that the reader might be able to fully comprehend --

(a) What was the change?

(b) What were the circumstances and process leading up to the change?

(c) Who was chiefly responsible for influencing and making the change?

(d) How was the change made?

(e) How did the staff and the community participate in effecting the change?

(f) What were the results or problems created by the change?

(g) Has the change persisted? Has it been evaluated? Revised? Fully internalized?

(h) Have there been secondary effects resulting from the change? How were these handled?

These guide questions have provided benchmarks to insure completeness, so that the subsequent analysis, involving the seven critical change factors, can be made against a complete background.

PART I - Leadership Portrait

Dr. Robert Ireland served as a Superintendent of Schools from 1956 to 1967. During his term of office a variety of innovative programs and practices were implemented in the various schools. Team teaching, nongradedness, the genesis of a new reporting system, expanded special services including formal guidance in the elementary schools, and the introduction of behavioral science electives in the senior high school were among the "quiet innovations" introduced and subsequently internalized.

Ireland describes himself as "a deliberate person," who frequently gave others their head in developing programs, even though he himself would have felt more comfortable with a much slower pace. Administrators and teachers who worked in Concord during his tenure testify that they "hardly ever saw Ireland except at regularly scheduled meetings. You could do whatever you wanted as long as your public relations image was

sound." An elementary principal observed that Ireland "allowed principals freedom and was not hung up on everyone's doing the same thing." Another administrator saw him as "organized and controlled, always careful and methodical in organizing and presenting data. He had a pre-conception about what direction and at what speed the district should move." Ireland himself confirmed that he "gave principals autonomy to move program," but amended that statement quickly be noting that he "was sure that it was less autonomy than they (principals) would have liked." An elementary principal noted that his charge was "to get the parents at his school off our backs. You'll have to do something there that is innovative. Everyone has a gimmick and they want that too."

Dr. Ireland depended heavily on the skill and drive of his assistant superintendents. Sayre Uhler was appointed to the newly created position of Assistant Superintendent at the School Committee meeting of March 19, 1964. At the time of his appointment he was completing his doctorate and serving as a Teaching Fellow at Harvard University.

Uhler, reflecting on his new role, commented, "They never had this position before. I really made my own job description by what I chose to do. There were no constraints except money. We reviewed problems at meetings of the Administrative Council. I found the principals to be traditionalists who were very much autonomous. Dr. Ireland wanted it that way and was generally unconcerned about that situation. I was most concerned with conditioning people to get ready for change."

Dr. Sayre Uhler served as an Assistant Superintendent until June 1966, when he resigned to take an overseas post in Liberia. Ireland described his assistant as "articulate and helpful. He had an idea a minute. His enthusiasm and infectious nature made him very attractive

to the staff and the community." He continued, "We made a good pair. I could act as a drag on him when he became over-enthusiastic. We moved when I was sure stability was present." Uhler served as Acting Superintendent during Ireland's sabbatical leave, February - June, 1966. He gained much popularity with the School Committee, often because his dashing manner and ready availability with new ideas contrasted sharply with Ireland's New England Yankee conservatism.

The first School Committee meeting Uhler participated in as Acting Superintendent was February 23, 1966. Two weeks later, on March 3, 1966, he introduced and advocated the METCO program to the School Committee. *(NOTE: The METCO program called for the busing of 200 negro students from inner Boston to schools in the outlying suburban area.)* The METCO program was finally approved on June 6, 1967. In the interim period, Uhler wrote frequently and spoke actively in support of METCO. His dash and enthusiasm in advocating the program won him wide support in Concord. An editorial in the Concord Journal on November 30, 1967, reflects him image with the community: "Dr. Uhler can frown and guffaw. He can be eloquently philosophical. He loves a good story and tells them well. He combines a tremendous sense of humor with a natural endowment for study and investigation."

It was not long after Ireland's return from sabbatical leave that the School Committee began to feel that he "was not moving rapidly enough." Uhler viewed Dr. Ireland's School Committee relationship differently. "For the first eight years of his superintendency, the School Committee was pretty much of a rubber stamp for his programs. All of a sudden money became a factor. There were new people on the committee who were not his supporters. They were unhappy with his appointment to principalships and generally with the way he was handling personnel matters." Ireland

interpreted his growing difficulty with the School Committee as "a move on their part to take back a good deal of the authority and prerogative exercised by the superintendent which they rationalized should be theirs." He continued by noting that "apparently the Committee wanted a new image with the community. I didn't understand what they wanted and tended to fight it. As a result the latter period of my stay in Concord was stormy. The balance of power and the inter-personal relationships were in a delicate balance." Ireland continues, "Things were not clicking as fast as I would have liked to see them move. I decided that I had been there long enough." A series of arguments with Committeeman Jacobs over the desirability of PPBS and the utilization of computer based instruction were probably the last of a series of influential factors that caused Superintendent Ireland to leave Concord for an attractive superintendency in Hinsdale, Illinois.

The Concord Journal in an editorial August 11, 1967, noted his resignation with regret:

> CONCORD LOSES AN EXPERIENCED EDUCATOR
>
> When Bob Ireland came to Concord, an experienced educator from a neighboring town recently told us "Concord's schools were among the good ones in Massachusetts. Now because of Bob, they are among the fine ones in the nation." We agree.
>
> In 11 years as our Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Ireland has demonstrated intelligence, imagination, an astonishing capacity for work and profound integrity. The respect his colleagues have for him was shown by his recent election to the presidency of the New England School Development Council, the most prestigious school organization in the East.
>
> A man of many talents, he is a photographer of professional ability, an expert skier and many have been charmed by his way with a guitar and a song. Because he feels he should stay abreast of educational developments, he has recently completed courses in computer programming and educational uses of computers.

> Many in Concord and Carlisle wonder why Bob Ireland feels compelled to leave our community, his native New England and the nearby mountains he loves to ski. The answer would seem to lie in recent actions of our School Committee.
>
> These hardworking members apparently have not given Dr. Ireland the same support that previous school committees have. For reasons of their own they delved into affairs which many consider to be purely administrative. They cut what the Superintendent felt was a "tight" budget and in a surprising action they did not allow him to employ his original choice as his own assistant. We do not pretend to understand the reasons for these things, but insofar as they resulted in our losing Bob Ireland we regret them. And we expect that when the committees, which have never worked with any superintendent other than Dr. Ireland, try to fill his shoes, the members may have some second thoughts.
>
> To Bob Ireland, we say, "Thank you. Our Town is a better place for what you have given it. Godspeed to you and Barbara.

In a short paragraph on the same editorial page the Journal remarked: "Bob Ireland had for several months been acting like a man who was about to move. We had it on good sources about five months ago that he would be leaving, but we had to respect our sources. There is a great deal that doesn't meet the eye in his resignation."

After Sayre Uhler left Concord to work in Liberia, Ireland hired Dr. Virginia Biggy as Assistant Superintendent for Instruction. Dr. Biggy was not a newcomer to Concord. She served as a coordinator of instruction during a previous period of employment. Ireland described her as "a traveling encyclopedia. She was experienced and successful in working with teachers. We complemented each other nicely. She was a pusher who wanted things recommended to the School Committee that I felt were too liberal. We had a difference in timing. I often let her push ahead even though I would have been more deliberate."

The selection of the Open Space Concept is directly attributed to Dr. Biggy and in some small measure to George McCune, who served as

Coordinator of Instruction. Similarly, the development and subsequent abandonment of the Individual Learning Center (ILC) is attributed to the same pair.

Dr. Biggy was seen by colleagues as an intelligent, articulate, untiring worker. Her directness, particularly with principals and teachers who failed to align themselves with innovative programs, was seen as threatening and harsh. Her alleged "change or leave" edict still draws comments.

The resignation of Dr. Ireland moved the School Committee to appoint Dr. Biggy as Acting Superintendent during the search period for the new superintendent. Dr. Harold Hunt of Harvard was subsequently employed by the School Committee to screen and recommend candidates to the School Committee. Dr. Biggy was among those who applied. Her candidacy was not favorably considered. The consultant was alleged to have said that he "was going to hire a man and that under no circumstances would the Committee consider a woman." This alleged remark and the generally known preference of the School Committee for a man produced hard feelings and some rancor. Dr. Sayre Uhler was appointed Superintendent of Schools effective January, 1968. Dr. Biggy continued in the district until June, 1969. Some combination of personal differences with Dr. Uhler and her personal disappointment in being passed over for the superintendency precipitated a confrontation that was climaxed by her departure.

The return of Sayre Uhler was generally received with delight by those who knew and remembered him from his previous stay in Concord. The School Committee had confidence that they had at last hired a "real mover." The faculty welcomed a longtime friend, and the community found him an exciting, articulate spokesman. It was not long, however, before differences developed and new problems arose.

It is difficult to point to any one particular incident to account for the mounting unpopularity of the Uhler administration. The "brilliance" which many saw in him was perhaps a key contributor to the difficulty he was to encounter. The "idea a minute" style soon proved confusing in that seeds once planted and initially nourished were soon discarded for a newer approach. One administrator said that "if he had a plan, you'd never be able to find it out." Many of the individuals interviewed felt that "any new idea would probably be totally different in three days." Several recalled "It was easy to tell with whom he had talked last, because that was the direction in which his newest idea would go." This tendency was consistent with what many viewed as his greatest motivation, namely to be liked and accepted by his staff. This characteristic, coupled with his personal desire to produce an innovative program, caused countless problems both for his teaching and administrative staffs. He was capable of moving teachers to want to change, but was found lacking in his ability to implement change. He reportedly encouraged ideas with a "go ahead and try it" approach. "Write it up and turn it in and we'll help you" was apparently a stock answer. His failure to follow up in a substantial way proved to be "extremely frustrating to teachers" and caused his creditability to decrease rapidly. In reflecting on his own term of office, Dr. Uhler acknowledged, "I was spread out too thin. I had a lot of balls in the air and really couldn't handle all of them. I felt that the staff was really looking to me for leadership. I tried to make up for the disability of the organization to handle problems and move at the building level."

Uhler advocated open and unencumbered communication. He was personally available to his staff, mainly through a continuing program of school visits. His solution to one problem in turn soon created another one. It was viewed as common practice for staff members to have access to his thinking and his intentions prior to any indication being given to his administrative staff. Principals felt that this caprice created a series of uncomfortable and embarrassing situations, as they often found themselves contradicted and uninformed.

Unlike Dr. Ireland, Superintendent Uhler envisioned a Concord Plan through which all of the schools of the district would live much more closely within guidelines and be directed more strenuously by the leadership of the central administrative staff. This was in direct contrast to Ireland's willingness to allow each principal and his staff almost complete autonomy to move program as long as it produced no significant community backlash. The fact that the program was never successfully converted to the Concord Plan was viewed by the staff as a result of Uhler's inability to stay with and follow up an idea rather than any lack of conviction as to the merit of the plan. Dr. Uhler noted that "The feudalistic tendency of the individual principals was almost impregnable. I operated under the delusion that they could be changed by talking to them. I found that I had to work with the teaching staff to begin to move principals."

Sayre Uhler left Concord in March, 1970, to become director of Children's World, in Dallas, Texas. George McCune served as Acting Superintendent until Dr. Ralph Sloan assumed the Superintendency on July 1, 1970.

PART II - CRITICAL CHANGE INCIDENTS

Three critical change incidents are presented in this section. Each of the leaders portrayed in Part I is directly associated with one of the critical change incidents. The following list gives specific association:

Dr. Robert Ireland -- Reporting Study

Dr. Virginia Biggy -- Open Space Program

Dr. Sayre Uhler -- Modular Scheduling in the Middle School

It is not intended that exclusive influence over the changes cited is attributed to the superintendent associated with it. In most cases, shared influence became the case, as an assistant superintendent served one chief school officer and then subsequently succeeded to the superintendency. Patterns and styles of leadership have remained discernible and are amply reflected in the following critical incidents.

CRITICAL INCIDENT #1

Grading-Reporting Study in The Elementary Schools

The introduction of a non-graded instructional program in the Alcott Elementary School, in 1962, first gave rise to the need for a more flexible approach to reporting pupil achievement. The use of more frequent parent conferences and the elimination of A, B. C grading via the traditional report card emerged as an interim solution. Other schools followed suit in implementing non-gradedness, and subsequently each added some particular feature to the reporting process. By September, 1965, Alcott had converted to all conferences with no formal report instrument. The Thoreau and Willard Schools had given up formal grades and had adopted conferences and anecdotal written reports. The differences between the schools became more evident and more confusing to parents. Superintendent Ireland, in recalling the circumstances noted, "As the schools moved away from our formal reports we started to receive many complaints from parents. They felt it just wasn't explicit enough. There were too many 'doing as well as can be expected.' As we dealt with this issue, there were several different attacks made to solve the problem. No matter what we did there always seemed to be too many different forms and too many different combinations. We weren't solving the problem."

In September, 1965, Dr. Ireland encountered Dr. Robert Anderson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, at a professional meeting in Cambridge. Conversations subsequently led to the sharing of mutual concerns regarding evaluating and reporting pupil progress, particularly in an elementary non-graded setting. Anderson reported, "I

don't know which came first, my remarks about the problem or his concerns over Concord's attempting to deal with it. I said that because this was one of the most neglected problems in American education, there was some possibility of getting funding to search for solutions. As it turned out, we were able to get $4,000 from the Ford Foundation for a three-year period. This covered my services as a consultant and other expenses of the study."

A proposition to make a long term commitment to the study of reporting pupil progress in the non-graded elementary program was presented to and eventually approved by the Elementary Council in October, 1965. Dr. Ireland then proceeded to appoint a committee. One teacher from each elementary school was selected, in addition to one elementary principal and the district social worker. Mrs. Joan Dee, an intermediate grade teacher, was appointed chairman by Dr. Ireland.

Mrs. Dee, when queried about the charge to the committee, could recall no particular task's being outlined except for Dr. Ireland's saying, "Do something about it," by developing a unified procedure which all of the elementary schools could use. "We were to develop a means of dealing with the child as an individual so that he as a unique person could be properly assessed." Dr. Ireland himself was vague in recalling this aspect of the committee's creation. "We had worked with Bob Anderson on many occasions. It was always our practice to bring in expert advice; Bob Anderson was certainly that. The committee knew what our problem was, and Dr. Anderson certainly had the expertise to work with the staff in developing new answers. Mrs. Dee was a very capable chairman, who had a dedication to getting the problem solved and was willing to push the committee and any one else required to do the job."

The reporting committee first met in November, 1965. It met periodically through June, 1968. The various dimensions of reporting, teacher-parent, teacher-pupil and teacher-teacher were explored. Prototype techniques emerged as the committee developed an order of priorities and activities. Among these were (1) a complete survey of "where they were," namely what techniques each school was utilizing and how the common features compared, and (2) a study of similar reporting programs for schools throughout the entire United States.

Mrs. Dee stated, "As we got a feel for what our task really was, we started to develop sample forms and procedures. As we became satisfied with them we sent them to the schools with tapes for later presentation and discussion. The feedback was excellent and we were able to make some important revisions. We next wanted parents to do the same thing the professional staff did. While our percentage of the total school community was very small, it was extremely helpful to receive their concerns. We next interviewed students and finally got around to answering operational questions which kept popping up."

The Reporting Committee, from its inception, received continuing support both from the Office of the Superintendent and the School Committee. Dr. Ireland, although not active in the deliberations of the committee, lent verbal and physical support, particularly to questions arising from the community. The initial decision by the School Committee to sanction the work of the committee was made October 24, 1965. The School Committee continued to demonstrate interest in the reporting study, and informal progress reports were submitted periodically. The most demonstrative expression of support for the committee was the decision to release students on Tuesday afternoons, so that that teachers might be

free to confer with parents. This decision, while designed to satisfy a need at the elementary school level, was timely for the Middle School staff, who were setting about preparing to implement modular/flexible scheduling. Dr. Anderson seconded the perceptions of the Reporting Committee when he noted, "I felt that the School Committee provided good support throughout. They made an important policy decision and later stood firm when parents reacted."

When Dr. Ireland resigned to accept the Superintendency of Hinsdale, Illinois, Dr. Virginia Biggy served as Acting Superintendent. One of the committee, recalling her support of the committee's efforts, said, "She was really very helpful to our group. Since the whole question of non-gradedness and freedom of dealing with children was one of her favorites, there was no doubt where she stood." Reports on the support of Dr. Sayre Uhler after his appointment in January, 1968, credited him as being "no less committed than Bob Ireland."

An important supportive decision by the School Committee was made in March, 1967, when permission was granted for the committee to work one month during the summer break. As a result, the group worked during July, 1967, during which time they divided into work teams to focus on developing effective procedures and guidelines for handling teacher-to-teacher transfer of data, teacher-to-parent reporting techniques, and teacher-to-pupil counseling and reporting procedures. A direct outcome of this work period was the development of informational and procedural booklets both for teachers and parents. These booklets were later to be the basis of parent orientation sessions and several teacher in-service meetings.

The 1967-68 school year was spent disseminating data to parents through Parent Teacher Organization meetings. Joan Dee observed, "It

was our feeling that the best way to have parents relate to the new program was to bring them together in small groups so they could really discuss it in depth and have their questions answered." She later added, "Our sampling was poor because we only got those out who were interested and supportive anyway." Feedback from these hearings was reported as "invaluable" in making subsequent adjustments.

Communication with the staff was continuous. Each building representative was responsible for reporting progress to her school staff. Often tapes were prepared and sent to be played to faculty groups and individual teachers. When the new program was reported out of committee, several successive Tuesday afternoon meetings in May, 1968, were spent in explaining the new procedure and in training teachers to develop newly required skills in student interviewing and counseling. Dr. Anderson, who attended most of the sessions, recalled that "the committee made a skillful presentation which was for the most part well received."

The new reporting procedure was adopted throughout all of the elementary schools in Concord effective September, 1968. Parents who failed to attend any of the earlier information sessions or who were concerned over the actual change itself presented strong pressure groups. Dr. Anderson stated, "The reporting committee was really convinced and they held their ground. So did the School Committee." Teachers, too, reported new difficulties. The principal problem was time, time to meet together with all of a student's teachers to develop a comprehensive assessment picture. The committee received continuous feedback and as a result made adjustments in recordkeeping requirements which were judged to be non-vital to total program success. A second problem was the

original requirement that all of a pupil's teachers be present for a parent conference. This became an extremely difficult problem to manage. The committee reviewed the original procedure and amended the requirement to at least two of a pupil's teachers present for the conference. Chairman Dee observed that "most of the teacher resistance resulted from an overwhelming time problem. As a committee, we tried to free up time, reduce paper work, and generally make adjustments to make the system work. I felt that we reacted too often. It would have been better had we acted before the program started, to anticipate these problems and to identify solutions in advance."

The Reporting Committee established review dates for January, 1969, and June, 1969, in their original scheme. Parents were surveyed at that time, as were pupils interviewed. Dr. Anderson felt that this data was particularly useful. "It soon became very obvious that teachers generally displayed less confidence in their ability to report and confer with children. An adjunct to that was the feeling of pupils that they didn't understand the basis of teacher judgments and statement about their work."

As part of their pre-planned procedure, the Reporting Committee met with the School Committee on Feburary 17, 1969. At this meeting the School Committee unanimously approved the committee's report and voted the continuation of the project.

The original members appointed to the committee served a term of three years. Chairman Dee stayed for five years, then resigned her role in June, 1970.

Staff reaction during interviews varied. Most teachers felt as an intermediate teacher who reported, "I'm much more satisfied now in communicating with parents. I have a chance to make sure I'm getting my

concerns across," A veteran teacher stated, "It's really valuable to confer with children, especially to get their opinions about themselves, school and other things of concern to them at that time." The feeling that the new reporting has had impact on instruction and curriculum is also widespread: "We've really had to examine our program and our practices; pupils keep us on our toes;" another, "It's made us think about how we handle boys and girls. It's opened up program a lot."

One note of concern was universal: "Plans for utilizing the results of the elementary conferences in the Middle School need to be carefully scrutinized." This is now under continued study with the Reporting Committee.

Interviewed parents generally supported the conferencing program: "Parents were well informed about this new procedure. The booklet was excellent. I feel that everyone had a chance to ask questions in advance;" "Most parents seem to like this new method of reporting;" "This change has produced much less adverse reaction than many of the other changes these past years. I feel that this is due to the careful preparation of, and more working with parents. We felt we had a role in this change."

Existing reservations seemed to be summed up by the parent who noted, "In general the community agrees with the theory behind this new reporting system, but there is disagreement on the present working practice." Another parent added, "Some feel the conference is not sufficiently informative of their child's progress. We want something to take home to share with other parents." Another concern was identified to be the varying abilities of teachers to conference successfully, "We have found that some teachers do a better job of reporting than others."

A completely dissident note was sounded by Morton R. Seavey, former principal of Emerson Junior High School, who wrote a letter to the editor of the Concord Journal in reference to the new reporting program. The following letter appeared in the Journal on October 17, 1968.

SCHOOL COMMITTEE STILL IN A FOG

To the Editor:

Our Concord School Committee members are not stupid people; they just like to do stupid things. Those who comprise the central office governing board have built up quite a score. There are so many people on the payroll in the central office that they get in each other's way, and have to call the teachers into meetings, and send the pupils home. This I call stupid, and they call "Professional Days."

They have become so confused over their own non-graded policy that they hired outside help to show them how to measure the pupils' progress, and what did they come up with? Thev labored and brought forth the decisions to abolish report cards. This I call stupid, and they call a "pilot program."

They have boxed themselves into a corner on their building program so many times that they plead with the townspeople to vote the bond issues because the committee is so hardworking, and not to mind the lack of merit. This I call stupid, and they call "public relations."

They have patently and persistently ignored the special needs of the boys and girls of Junior high school age, and now they pull the biggest blooper of them all by asking us to split the junior high down the middle with their misdirected talk of a middle school. This I call the stupidest of all, and they call "re-organization."

Step after step they move backward, but they are clever in thinking up terms which make it seem like progress. And short shrift is given anyone who tries to straighten them out. They have learned quite well how to substitute power for wisdom.

CRITICAL INCIDENT #2

Development of The Open-Space Learning Program

The influx of new residents to Concord during the early 1960's was soon reflected in rising public school enrollment, particularly at the elementary level. The need to construct new instructional spaces became one of the continuing concerns of the School Committee. Efforts to develop a comprehensive master plan for future construction were generally unproductive. While Superintendent Ireland noted that in 1964 he was successful in "selling specifications for the new high school to the School Committee and the community," there is no such evidence to indicate agreement on emerging elementary and junior high school physical needs. The problem of increasing cost was one of the chief concerns. The School Committee found "frequent points of difference when cost appeared to be that much more." Dr. Ireland, reflecting a personal conservatism, posed the question, "Why was it necessary for innovation to be so much more expensive?" A member of the community said, "There were too many people in town who had their finger in the pie. It was evident that there was no long-range planning. The whole thing was slowed down by the Citizens Committee, which unfortunately was too politically inclined." Another commented, "It seems that the town has just backed into the buildings they now have." These were among the issues facing the School Committee which produced a series of delays.

Dr. Virginia Biggy observed, "The whole question of additions and new construction was delayed by fights over what to do. It was all dropped in my lap. I felt it was most wise to consider open space. We worked on the specifications with the architect and sold the plans to

the School Committee. George McCune and I, through an extraordinary effort, managed to sell the building program to the community. There were two buildings approved at the same town meeting."

The concept of open-space as conceived in Concord involved clusters of pupils and groups of teachers assigned together, without regard for ordinary grade designation. Multi-age clusters were the goal. More flexible utilization of teacher skills, greater opportunity to employ varied teaching strategies, and expanded opportunities for individual pupil growth were generally considered as supportive rationale for embracing this concept. This did not represent Concord's first attempt to use flexible staff or to vary pupil grouping. Some aspects of team teaching and non-gradedness were practiced by the different elementary schools, reportedly as early as 1960. The use of larger spaces, to accommodate an expanded group of pupils and a team of teachers, was noted by Dr. Ireland in the Thoreau School in 1964. He recalled that "We pushed the School Committee for approval to change toward this type program. They were interested in innovative behavior and were oriented to approve changes like this." Adoption of this approach was not an early one. The final decision to move toward an open-space concept was not to be made until after the approval of the two new buildings. The involvement of professional staff to prepare for implementing the program was subsequent to building approval.

Marion Gorham was principal of both the Emerson School (approximately 450 pupils) and the Ripley School (200 pupils) in 1965. She recalled that her staff started to adopt multi-age grouping in conjunction with their program of team teaching as early as 1963. "The move toward

open-space was never frightening to my staff. We made certain decisions ourselves about organizaing our schools and as a result of our confidence in where we were going we were never upset by the impetus given to open-space by Dr. Biggy. As soon as it was decided that I would be the principal at the expanded Ripley School, we really got down to business to get ready for it."

The introduction of the open-space program was not to be as smooth in all of the elementary buildings. Dr. Biggy, after approval of the building program, then moved toward orienting the principals and the teachers. The Administrative Council held a series of meetings at which the program was presented. One of the participants observed, "The principals said yes without really knowing what the long-range impact would be. When they realized that their acceptances were being taken seriously, they were really concerned."

The principals, in recalling this development, typically commented: "Yes, I remember the meetings. The Council accepted the whole idea without really knowing what this modern school - all open space business - was all about. It really sounded great."

"The open space program was simply a power play. We never got around to the problem of adding substance to the whole operation until much later."

"There was a tremendous pressure placed on us to conform. It seemed like a good idea so why not everyone. I was willing to go along. The whole thing was mercurial. Before I knew it they were knocking down walls."

One of the School Committee commented, "As I look back I can say now that there was not enough real understanding of the implication of

open space. Dr. Ireland, Dr. Biggy and George McCune presented the image of a strong team and we were swayed by that. The committee had the impression that all the principals wanted the open space program. I don't remember any rationale being presented about how teachers would be prepared. We voted the 11th month for the whole Ripley staff to get ready."

The readiness activities to prepare staff varied considerably. Marion Gorham, once assured of the principalship, established a program of visiting, study and discussion. She recalled, "We gained some insights by visiting other schools, but we usually found that the label or the title didn't match the operation itself. The eleventh month was an excellent feature. We had all but one teacher present. I think that we really developed an understanding of the process we were seeking. We failed to anticipate a lot of the problems but we were very successful in developing a spirit of receptiveness to change. We opened in September 1969 and felt we were on top of what we were doing."

The preparation activities of the Ripley staff were not shared by other buildings. Physical changes were effected without readiness activities for the teaching staffs in other buildings. The Willard School was the first to have walls removed. Other buildings followed suit. One of the remarks, generally shared by many, was made by George McCune: "We didn't do as good a job as we might have to get teachers ready. The staffs generally had a year of suffering to go through. We moved rapidly and just failed to provide opportunities for teachers to acquire the skills necessary in the new program. We did a much better job with the community than we did with the staff."

Comments from the teaching staff in several buildings offer insight into this aspect of open-space program development:

"There was tremendous concern by the teachers who were forced into this situation without time for preparation."

"We had no part in the whole thing. We were simply told it was to be. No real preparation was made. We just worked at it ourselves."

"We received no preparation whatsoever. I felt apprehensive and unprepared to cope with the new change."

"We had no preparation at all. I feel my effectiveness as a teacher is less under the new program."

"Changes in teacher behavior were de-facto. We just had to adjust."

A teacher (not on the Ripley staff) offered her thoughts: "Our staff was motivated toward openness. While we were cautious about going in over our heads, we said let's try and we did. We had doubts in the beginning but we were bound and determined to make it work. Our attitudes were very positive. Our teachers at the 2-3 level have moved more slowly because they felt they weren't ready. I understand that not all buildings had the same conviction. We didn't have to make it work but we wanted to."

The open-space program generally concludes its second year and appears headed for another year of operation. Acceptance now appears to be relatively in proportion to the eagerness or willingness with which the principal and staff approached the program. Reactions include the following: "It is fully accepted and part of the total program;" "Many of the parent concerns have been accentuated. The pupils for the most part love it;" "It's flourishing. Totally accepted.'" "The faculty still feels our nongraded idea was the best for children;" "It still continues with parental pressures. It's taking hold due to the lack of rejection by the children;" "It's fully accepted. The building now has

only four regular classrooms. We are debating now whether to remove the remaining walls." Staff comments parallel those from the community. Many report they understand and support the program, but others express frustration and hostility toward the change.

CRITICAL INCIDENT #3

Introduction of Modular/Flexible Scheduling in The Middle School

The introduction of modular/flexible scheduling and the implementation of the middle-school concept occurred simultaneously in Concord, in September, 1969. The background events leading up to both efforts run parallel courses. They were so closely aligned in their development that the illusion of one happening because of the other persists in the community today. The development of this critical incident will deal only incidentally with the middle-school rationale as it fits into an understanding of the development of modular scheduling.

The growth of the elementary school population and the resultant pupil load in the junior high school, as cited in Critical Incident #2, necessitated consideration of additional space for the early secondary program. Grades 7 and 8 constituted the junior high school years in Concord prior to 1969. Pupils in these grades were housed in the Sanborn Building. Pupils in grade 6 were moved out of their neighborhood buildings into the Emerson School as an interim solution to the pressing need for space. The approval for the construction of the Ripley School addition and the new Peabody School in 1967, offered a solution to the numerical crunch in the elementary schools. However, the rejection of the conversion of the Emerson School facility left the junior high housing problem unresolved.

Dr. Sayre Uhler advocated the adoption of the Intermediate School concept, which called for Graded K-4 as the elementary level, Grade 5-8 in the intermediate level, and Grades 9-12 as the senior high school years. A report in the February 29, 1968 edition of the Concord Journal

carried a summation of the report of the Long Range Planning Committee in which Uhler's organizational plan was presented. He campaigned aggressively for this organizational pattern in the community and with the School Committee. The Intermediate School, failing to receive a warm reception in Concord, was not adopted. A compromise solution was the implementation of the Middle School concept, which called for the integration of Grades 6, 7 and 8 as the middle portion of the total school experience. The School Committee made the ultimate decision to utilize the existing Sanborn plant and the newly constructed Peabody building to house the newly created Concord Middle School.

Robert Diamond came to Concord as junior high school principal in September, 1965. He replaced Morton R. Seavey who retired at the end of the 1964-65 school year after 28 years of service as principal of the Emerson Junior High School. The instructional pattern in the junior high school was typically conventional in using time, staff and pupil grouping techniques during the first two years of his principalship. Diamond reflected that in June, 1967, he voiced his dissatisfaction with "the means we were employing to handle kids. I hoped to move more vigorously toward non-gradedness the following September."

In October, 1967, Mr. Diamond attended an Educational Coordinates Conference at Timberlane Regional High School, Plaistow, New Hampshire. He said, "I had a change to hear Dwight Allen and Robert Kessler talk about modular scheduling. I really got turned on. When I came back I talked with Sayre Uhler about my experiences. He was enthused about the possibilities for Concord. He agreed to arrange a professional day for all of the junior high staff to visit in Timberlane."

In December, 1968, the total junior high school staff spent a day in Timberlane. Prior to that visit, Diamond began a series of discussions with his staff, during which he shared his experiences at Timberlane and his aspirations to seek "more viable alternatives to work with boys and girls." A constant flood of professional literature dealing with new directions in education was made available to the staff. A film series featuring Dwight Allen was shown to the faculty. This was followed by intensive discussions, in which the philosophical basis for organizing schools was carefully examined. In November, 1968, a special day was scheduled in Concord to enable the Middle School staff to meet with a group of consultants from the University of Massachusetts; Dwight Allen was scheduled as the chief presenter for that session. He later had to reschedule his appearance for later in the year. Dr. Robert Kessler, Dr. Richard Clark and Gerald Weinstein appeared on the program and made such input contributions as modular scheduling, humanistic and affective education, to differentiated staffing. Members of the staff thus reflected upon these presentations: "They presented a lot of options for us to think about. It followed nicely on what we had been considering all that fall."

The visit to Timberlane afforded the staff the opportunity to view in practice many of the concepts they had been discussing. Diamond recalled, "We agreed that they could talk to anyone they wanted to. I especially encouraged the staff to discuss concerns with the Timberlane teachers and pupils. As it turned out, they all liked what they saw. All of our staff felt there was a green light to go." During the month of January, 1969, the faculty, without the principal present, took a poll

as to whether to adopt and proceed to implement modular flexible scheduling. The results of that meeting were positive in favor of moving toward modular scheduling.

Recollections by the staff were mixed in reconstructing the substance of the meeting. Principal Diamond stated, "I didn't want to be there. I felt it was important that they thrash it out among themselves and make a decision they felt they could live with. My feedback was only that it was substantial enough to enable us to go. I don't think I ever asked what the vote was." Teachers reported, "It was a healthy discussion. We had a lot of questions and anxieties, but we agreed that it was a step toward how we should be handling kids." A different tone was noted by another: "Some of us had the feeling that it would have been superimposed no matter whether or not we said yes or no. We saw the handwriting on the wall. Many felt that if this was the answer to education, we should give it a try." A veteran teacher commented, "The tradition of the Concord faculty had always been its willingness to try new things. The tradition almost compelled us. Besides, there were a lot of younger people on the staff who were really excited about the prospects of modular scheduling."

Immediately after this meeting, the staff set about the task of developing program specifications and time configurations. As an interim move, study halls were eliminated and the cafeteria established as an unsupervised area. Staff study continued through the Spring of 1969, during which period Dwight Allen met with the Middle School staff. His enthusiasm for modular/flexible scheduling helped sustain staff commitment. A teacher commented, "He personally opened my eyes. I never really knew that these things existed." Another added, "His presentation made us feel pretty good about where we were headed." James Smith and

Michael DeBlois, both of the University of Massachusetts, also appeared as consultants on that program.

The total staff worked through July, 1969, to prepare for the opening of the new program that September. One of the teachers reported that as the opening date grew closer, apprehension grew: "We all had questions we would have liked to have answers spelled out for. We never disagreed at any time with the philosophy, but we had a lot of problems with the practicalities."

The Peabody School opened in September, 1969. The combination of the Peabody and the Sanborn Schools comprised the Concord Middle School. Its opening coincided with the introduction of modular/flexible scheduling.

The program was not operative very long until three types of problems emerged: technical professional concerns, articulation difficulties, and an aroused community. It became immediately obvious to the staff that some decisions made prior to the opening program were not feasible. "There were things we had not anticipated. We were always searching for the expedient." Another recalled, "We really identified problems by living through them. It was tough because there was no one there to help the staff through these issues." Bob Diamond agreed with this expression. He added that "once we got started, there was not much assistance made available to the staff." Another administrator stated, "We placed a lot of faith in the ability of our staff. We had Tuesday afternoon to plan and work during the 1968-69 school year. This really helped. Where people were when we started had a great deal to do with how well and how rapidly we adjusted." Diamond added, "We really didn't spend the time required to develop new skills. A lot of the lead-in time was taken up with needling, pushing those who were reluctant, and supporting those who wanted to go."

A concomitant instructional problem was the open space in the Peabody School. Bob Diamond reflected, "We had no experience at all in an open space program. We went in totally cold. It added to our problems in compounding the behavioral changes required by modular scheduling."

An aroused public became an important factor to deal with. The decision to inform and involve the community in changes in Middle School programming was made late. Diamond noted in retrospect, "We didn't bring the community in until we had made our decision to go and had already gone to the computer. We had actually committed ourselves without keeping the School Committee totally informed." A member of the professional staff commented, "We did a lousy job with the community in the beginning. We wanted to inform them, but we didn't feel that they needed to approve. It was our professional judgment and our decision." Public meetings were held in the Spring of 1969, but were generally poorly attended. Estimates at attendance in those meetings are vague. "Only a handful" seems to be the common recollection. Once the program started, the expression of anguish grew at a rapid rate. The flood of irate and angry letters to the editor of The Journal was a barometer of the rising wave of parent concern. In reaction to this, the Middle School staff made a decision to "concentrate on the public." Coffee hours, evening meetings, school visits, and extensive written publicity were alternatives adopted to tell the school story.

The success of efforts to re-educate the community cannot be assessed. Parents interviewed reacted in a variety of ways. Among those comments are the following: "My child has done well. She has accepted the responsibility beautifully and has grown with it;" "We were told the

modular program would make a man out of my sixth grader. The whole first year was an admitted chaos;" "I was positive originally but now I'm totally negative. I know that a lot of parents are antagonistic and are getting more so all the time." Parent reactions were also reflected in the local newspapers. The Concord Free Press in an article published October 9, 1969, reported:

PARENTS ASK HEARING ON MIDDLE SCHOOL

An active group of parents deeply concerned with the Modular Structured System of Study now being tried out in the Middle Schools of Concord have decided to ask the School Board to give their children a regular standard curriculum of the type used in the best schools across the United States.

They have met with Mr. McCune who is in charge of the Concord School Curriculum Planning, Mr. Diamond who is the Principal of the Emerson School, Mr. Uhler, who is head of the School Committee, and Mr. Eckberg, assistant principal of the Emerson School. At the meeting there were thirty-five mothers present who asked questions and made their dissatisfaction known with the system now in effect.

The chief problems are that the basic subjects - such as Arithmetic and English - are taught only three times a week. In the Arithmetic Classes there are two sessions per week which last sixty minutes, have sixth, seventh and eighth grade students all working together with one or two teachers and no fixed text book to follow, with another forty minute session later on in the week. There is no particular textbook, no pattern of development other than what the teacher has seen fit to mimeograph the night before for the use of the class.

A general study of the problems - which are many - shows the need for a re-assessment of the School Curriculum and as a result parents have gathered in a loosely formed organization to see that this is done.

The next meeting will be at the Administration Building, Peter Bulkeley School, at eight o'clock on Monday, October 13. Everyone who is interested in the Middle School Modular Schedule is invited to come and ask questions of Mr. Uhler, and those members of the School Organization who will be there.

Those people who do not care to ask questions will be able to write their problems down and these will be submitted to the School Organization.

Another meeting where parents may hope to be heard will be at the School Committee where this question may be brought up on October 21 at 8 p.m. - place unknown.

In the same issue, the editorial page carried the following comment:

Speaking of education, we don't know about how things are going at the Sanborn School, but understand from our usually unreliable source that things are still pretty confused over at Emerson. The plethora of different classes and all being a rather hairy beast for kids that age to tackle. Ours informed us that Mr. Ekberg had announced that there would be two periods a week devoted to "checking your schedules." We entered a demurrer, thinking that that seemed an inordinate amount of good school time, but were told not to worry - she's seriously thinking of majoring in it, so the time won't be wasted. Wonder if there's an Honors Seminar?

Two other letters to the editor were carried in the Concord Journal, dated November 6, 1969:

WANTS TEXTBOOKS IN SCHOOLS

To the Editor:

As another very concerned parent, I too wish to express my disappointment with the teaching concepts now being used in the Concord Middle School.

It has been said that Concord does not wish to be compared with what is going on in other school systems - not even those in neighboring communities. However, those of us who have moved here from out-of-state, or otherwise, certainly are aware of what is going on in other school systems, and what they offered our children in the way of education as well as social adjustment.

This is still a competitive world (more so now than ever before). Let us prepare our children with more structured class time, following a more definite pattern; a return to textbooks, homework, report cards, and yes even the honor roll!!!

If enough voices are heard, perhaps Concord will return to a more disciplined and beneficially educational system for the benefit of all concerned; especially our children.

SUPPORTER OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

To the Editor:

I have had children in the Concord Public Schools for ten years and wish to record myself as an enthusiastic supporter of the administration and teachers in our system.

> I have long admired the receptiveness to constructive criticism, the imaginative creativity and the dedication to giving the best education to all children under sometimes trying circumstances.
>
> The problem for the future it seems to me will be to keep up the good work.

These letters and articles reflect parent concern at that time.

A third problem that emerged was the reaction of the elementary school staff to the modular program. A typical elementary-teacher comment was: "There was no real effort to bring the elementary staff up to date on the philosophy and the program. We had to push for better articulation ourselves." Another elementary teacher remarked, "Parent concerns about the Middle School program really get back to us when we have our conferences. They want to know if they'll be able to cope with the new schedule and if they'll learn anything there. I try to reassure them, but I really don't know very much about it." A third added, "The Middle School program really changed. For one thing, they ought to concentrate on creating a more positive attitude on the part of the elementary sending staff. There's too much unstructured time and it's impersonal. It seems to me that the staff up there is only partially prepared. They're more concerned with administrative detail and not enough about kids and the learning process." Another sending teacher observed, "Parents are frightened about the lack of structure. I'm not able to give them answers, besides I'm not too sure about the unstructured time problem."

The articulation problem reportedly was compounded by internal administrative staff relationship problems. An observer reported, "Uhler made Diamond his fairhaired boy. Some of the principals looked on him with distrust. Communication with the elementary schools was never good

anyway. This compounded the problem of the elementary principals being in the dark and being either too threatened or too angry to inquire."

The Faculty Senate took a vote, in February of 1970, to decide if the modular program should be continued. The vote was unanimous in favor of continuance. As a result the Concord Middle School opened in September, 1970, as a modular/flexibly scheduled school.

Staff observations pertaining to the 1969-70 school year reflect the tenor of thinking and activity during that period:

"Some departments really made a lot of progress. I always found the administrator to be willing to help, but we were always held back by the traditionalists who refused to move and weren't willing to put in the effort."

"Independent study has always been a weak spot. It looks nice but we never had the alternatives for pupils to use the time as it was intended. Our Resource Centers were poor both as regards materials and personnel."

"We never bothered to get feedback from the students. They could have told us that we never had enough of the right things to do."

"It didn't take long for the discrepancies in the sending elementary schools to show up. The results were alarming over what is happening or not happening there."

"We were naïve. Our level of thinking really hurt our development. This has caused certain aspects of the program to be ineffective."

"I wish we could do it over again. I'd do it differently. First I'd be 100% more honest with the community and admit to problems. Secondly, I'd stop covering up problems with 'a party line.' Thirdly, I'd stop making false claims for certain types of instruction, particularly

independent study. We are giving platitudes and jargonistic answers to every question that comes up."

"We saw that it was the proper time to make the sudden move and 'go.' I think we've been successful. Morale in this school is very high."

The story of the Concord Middle School, very much like the open-space concept presented as Critical Incident #2, is still unfolding.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to effect a comprehensive analysis based upon the evidences of leadership behavior; the management of change as reflected in the three critical incidents developed in Chapter IV, and the utilization of other evidence and data obtained in the research process but not specifically related to either of the first two considerations. The researcher has specified at several points in the development of this study that while the three critical incidents have served as the primary focus of attention in collecting data, other information obtained casually and incidentally would not be ignored. This additional data will be utilized as appropriate to provide a more comprehensive and accurate analysis.

The screen for this analysis will be the seven critical factors of change identified previously in Chapter II, Review of the Professional Literature. The critical change factors will be used for analysis in the following order: 1) Leadership Effectiveness, 2) Organizational Health, 3) Environment and the School Client System, 4) Goal Clarity, 5) Role and Influence of a Change Agent, 6) Utilization of the Change Process, and 7) Self-Renewal.

Leadership Effectiveness has been transposed from Critical Change Factor #7 to become the first critical change factor for analysis. The change factors developed in Chapter II were not presented in a mandated sequential order. Rather, there is an overlapping dependency, one upon

the other, which makes them closely inter-related. The impact of leadership behavior is clearly evident in each of the three critical incidents developed in Chapter IV. It is, in addition, the most obvious and overriding factor observable during the 5-year period covered in the study. An early treatment and analysis of leadership effectiveness sets the stage for more comprehensive analysis using the other critical change factors.

The approach in this analysis is designed to deal with larger cumulative patterns and relationships, as opposed to dealing with each superintendent separately and with each critical change incident or other portions of related data independently. Inter-relationship between individuals and interwoven characteristics of each of the change incidents and other supportive materials dictates the larger view. This analysis is expected to provide conclusive findings either to sustain or to reject the hypothesis presented in Anticipated Findings, Chapter I.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #1

The tempo and tenor of change in the Concord Schools has directly reflected the administrative style and personal qualities of the chief school administrators who served during the period covered by this study. The pendulum moved from the "cautious" and "deliberate" style of Dr. Ireland to the free-wheeling, mercurial style of Dr. Uhler. The extremes in personal style were difficult for the community and the professional staff to adjust to. As a result, the equilibrium between the forces favoring change and the forces seeking to maintain the status quo was always tenuous and delicate.

The administrative style and approach of each superintendent was conditioned in part by the attitude and aspirations of the School Committee. It was a general consensus of persons interviewed that the School Committee sought the image of Concord as an innovative district. Dr. Ireland, commenting on this point, noted that the School Committee "did not want to be the first experimenter nor were they willing to be the last man in. They encouraged administrators and teachers to get out to see new programs and different approaches which might have relevance in Concord." When Dr. Ireland took a six-month sabbatical leave, in 1965, he was replaced on an interim basis by Dr. Sayre Uhler, his Assistant Superintendent. The instant transformation from the "cautious" and "deliberate" Ireland style to the uninhibited, rapid-fire style represented by Uhler was an awakening experience for the Committee. They saw in Uhler the dash and vigor they sought and which they felt was lacking in Ireland's restraint and conservatism. Ireland's relationship with the School Committee changed rapidly upon his return. Differences became more frequent; dissatisfaction with his leadership, more evident. Dr. Ireland resigned in August, 1967. Dr. Virginia Biggy served as Acting Superintendent until January, 1968, when Dr. Uhler returned as Superintendent of Schools. The desire of the School Committee for more aggressive, bolder leadership was not a well-kept secret. The advocacy of the open, rapid-moving style represented by Uhler was an overt indication to all that the district was seeking a bolder tempo of change. The School Committee then, by its rejection of one style of leadership and its advocacy of a more aggressive posture, set the tone that was to permeate the district for the next two years.

"The successful organization has one major attribute that sets it apart from unsuccessful organizations: dynamic and effective leadership."[98] Research findings have indicated that leadership styles vary considerably from leader to leader. Two central concerns emerge as pivotal in assessing any managerial situation: task, or concern for production, and consideration, or concern for people. The ability to mix these two ingredients successfully in adaptive leadership behavior is now more generally accepted as a desired mode of leadership behavior. The data pertaining to Effective Leadership Behavior as reported in Chapter II serves as a filter to analyze the leadership behavior of each of the three superintendents included in this study. Effectiveness will be viewed as possessing both short-term and long-term dimensions. The short term dimension reflects a concern for organizational output (task accomplishment); the long term dimension refers to the development of sound organizational health, adaptive-problem capacities and a concern for the individuals making up the organization. A manager might be successful in bringing about immediate short term change in output, but still might be considered ineffective in developing the longer term changes in organizational health and adaptability.

Dr. Ireland's style was consistently Low Task and Low Relationship. His effectiveness varied during his superintendency, moving generally downward from effective to ineffective. His style was successful as long as the tasks to be achieved by organization (the individual schools and the district) remained constant and relatively uncomplicated. As Concord took on newer, more sophisticated organizational patterns and instructional relationships, the job demands placed upon teachers and administrators

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[98] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 59.*

increased proportionately. Changes in output expectations and task structure were not accommodated by any different leadership behavior than was evidenced by Ireland in the considerably less demanding and less sophisticated self-contained classroom seating. Ireland's short term success however did not contribute to the development of longer term organizational effectiveness. Strong individual school autonomy and the emphasis on minimal central direction were both contributing factors to the subsequent failure of the district to attain a sufficiently sound state of organizational health which would insure a mature and stable adaptive, problem-solving capacity. Similarly there was little evidence from the professional staff of an effective organizational capacity to problem solve and be adaptive in their own right. The School Committee demanded a greater evidence of task achievement for High Task; the professional staff sought support and assistance (High Consideration) which they had not been nurtured to develop in other years. Ireland was not able to satisfy either. His leadership behavior became ineffective in relationship to both the short-run view of organizational productivity, and long-run view of organizational development. He purposely maintained a low visibility with his professional staff. His general pattern was to permit principals to "do their own thing." This established each school as an autonomous unit, with little accountability except when reactions to program manifestly upset the community.

His style largely reflected his personality. One of the teachers interviewed (eleven years in Concord) commented, "I really didn't know him. I rarely saw him and never had a chance to get beyond his reputation." An administrator responded, "He was a shy individual. I came to know him as a kind person who had a respect for people." His style (low visibility

and indirect influence) imposed several limitations that were to prove troublesome during his latter, crisis, years.

The impetus for leadership fell either to the Assistant Superintendent for Instruction or to the various building principals. While Dr. Ireland supported "reasonable changes," he did not participate in the change process in a manner causing an observer to consider him an active change agent. The Reporting Study began during his superintendency, but participants were hard pressed to be definitive in outlining his role except that of being supportive. His behavior in this case was consistent with his Low Task and Low Relationship style. The impetus for the study resulted from his desire to insure autonomy for each principal. The end product in this instance was several different reporting patterns that eventually caused consternation in the community and moved Dr. Ireland to charge the committee to "do something about it." His participation in the reporting study was sufficiently pervasive to persons outside the Reporting Committee to cause them to attribute prime responsibility for any success the Committee enjoyed to the leadership of Chairman Joan Dee.

Dr. Ireland's decisions to foster the autonomy of building principals eventually contributed to his being discredited by the School Committee. One of the Committee members during Ireland's years recalled "there were some on the Committee who felt that he was not controlling the principals enough. They were too autonomous and were doing things which we didn't approve of. Dr. Ireland had firm convictions regarding his approach. He wanted leadership from the principals and insisted that his role was to guide their actions via Committee Policies." The election of Robert Jacobs to the School Committee brought to a climax the whole

issue of control versus autonomy. The same Committee member recalled, "When Bob Jacobs came on the Committee, there was immediate conflict. He felt strongly about the Superintendent and the principals. He wanted much more Committee control and more accountability for everything in the schools."

Ireland's unwillingness to reassess his relationship with his building principals became one of the key factors in the growing ineffectiveness of his leadership. There is no evidence of any effort on his part to provide new skills or understandings which principals might adopt in order to deal with emerging problems. The same observation is applicable for the other two superintendents as well, but they chose to deal with this problem differently. Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model has application in this instance. Fiedler describes three major situational variables that seem to determine whether a given situation is favorable or unfavorable to a leader: 1) Leader-member relations - his personal relations with the members of his group; 2) position power - the power and authority which his position provides; and 3) task structure - the degree of structure (routine vs challenging) in the task which the group has been assigned to perform.[99] As a leader accurately assesses and interprets changes in these variables, he is able to effect changes in his style to insure continued effectiveness.

As one views Dr. Ireland's particular style, there is no evidence that he took any note of changes in two variables, position-power and task-structure. His position-power was eroding quickly with the School Committee, yet he failed to adjust his style and behavior. Secondly, the

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[99]*Fiedler, pp. 255-256.*

task-structure facing principals in a more sophisticated instructional setting had in fact changed. As noted earlier, Dr. Ireland made no effort to recognize the requirement for developing new staff skills to deal with a revised task-structure.

Reddin[100] classifies jobs as having low and high flexibility demands. Application of this premise to a school superintendent comes easily. He must deal with a School Committee, administrative staff, faculty, students and the general public. At certain times a person is required to be task-oriented and to stress planning, organizing and controlling, while at other times he might wish to be a salesman and appear relationship-oriented. Reddin emphasizes that different leadership styles might be appropriate in different situations. This moves one to emphasize the importance of a leader's diagnostic ability. This refers to his ability to understand the nature and impact of variables and to evaluate them in terms of task and relationship demands. There is no outstanding evidence that Dr. Ireland considered this.

Further examination of different aspects of the task-relationship dimensions reveals several other issues proving helpful in understanding Dr. Ireland's leadership effectiveness.

His unwillingness to place greater emphasis on a high-task dimension at certain times further contributed to his personal problems with the School Committee. In addition, these are factors having residual influence in that they persisted throughout the periods of leadership of Drs. Biggy and Uhler. There are several examples of this:

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[100]*Hersey and Blanchard, p. 123.*

1. Goals in developing programs were seen as generally lacking by those interviewed. The lack of specific district objectives proved to be another contributing factor in the parochial, protective posture taken by each principal. Rivalries tended to develop between schools, thus leading to separatism rather than to a united collective posture in programming.
2. Attention to the requirement for organizational and individual self-renewal was a serious deficiency. Changes made during the earlier years of Ireland's superintendency were allowed to "re-freeze" without concern for evaluation, revision, or increased sophistication. There is little evidence of any effort to provide continuing input, to create either the need or the desire to gain new competencies. This was particularly true of the principalships. Later attempts at change were to prove threatening to principals, primarily because they did not possess the skills necessary to implement and maintain these programs. Particular antagonism developed between principals and Dr. Biggy, as she attempted to move new programs that created demands on the building leadership which they could not reasonably satisfy. The result was resistance, or, at best, passive support.
3. Motivation for change or self-renewal was artificial. A successful organization can internalize the requirement for assessment and change, and the response is natural and continuous. But such was not the case in Concord. Several key administrators noted that motivation stemmed not primarily from a continuing professional concern, but rather from the probability of being awarded merit pay as a reward for being innovative. One administrator

noted, "Consideration for merit pay fell into a regular pattern. It was a reward for a certain kind of innovative behavior." Another added, "Merit money made it practical to be involved with innovative practices."

4. Dr. Ireland's only effort to regulate the school program was to work toward a basic curriculum for all the different elementary schools. This effort was not strenuously policed (extreme low-task concern); as a result, diverse materials and programs created community problems whenever children transferred from school to school within the district.

Superintendent Ireland was effective until a number of intervening variables changed. He could not alter his behavior sufficiently or adapt quickly enough to survive the new demands.

Dr. Biggy possessed deep educational convictions that she conveyed to others in a forthright and forceful manner. Her basic style of leadership behavior was one of High Task. She was successful in producing change both in individuals and in larger school units. The effectiveness of these changes varied, depending directly upon the quality of the working relationship she had established with the principal and the professional staff in each building. As a result, her degree of effectiveness varied proportionately. The shorter term, task or output dimension of effectiveness rates favorably. The longer term dimension of developing organizational health and an adaptive problem solving capacity must be considered as ineffective due primarily to her almost exclusive use of a power approach in working with staff. Subordinates frequently viewed her as having no confidence in them, as being unpleasant and interested

only in immediate change. Her impact, while tempered by Dr. Ireland's conservatism, was still a vital one, as evidenced by the move toward open-space planning and programming, and the instigation of the middle-school movement. Ireland reflected that she frequently "overrode teacher objection to push program." Her style and manner produced disharmony and a decided clash of personalities vis-a-vis principals. Because each principal had "ruled his feudal kingdom without interference or accountability," her efforts to change program met with severe resistance, not only by principals, but also by teachers who were cloistered and sheltered by principals and thus saw their first loyalty to those principals.

Dr. Biggy was given sufficient autonomy and independence to implement the open-space program. This will be dealt with as a separate critical incident and hence will be only casually included in this section. Her basic approach to change was via a power strategy.

Bennis best describes this approach as "coercive change through unilateral goal setting with deliberate intentions to use unilateral power."[101] Greiner categorizes this style as "the Decree Approach, a one-way announcement originating with a person with high formal authority and passed on to those in lower positions."[102] Considering the alignment of power and influence of the principals, there was probably no other effective means of moving the staff to the point of implementing the open-space program within the time limitations available. The dilemma in the use of coercive power is characterized by Bennis as follows: "Coercive power is less durable than any other kind of power. except under conditions of vigilant surveillance."[103] This style is

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[101] *Bennis, p. 82.*
[102] *L. E. Greiner, "Emergent Notions About Planned Change," Bennis, Benne and Chin, p. 82.*
[103] *Bennis, p. 83.*

the antithesis of the collaborative relationship essential to planned change, even though Walton argues that "change, under conditions of polarized disagreement, may be realized only by the use of threat, power, or hostility." He continues, "The change agent must learn to accept and utilize coercive as well as collaborative strategies to create effective change."[104] Chin agrees that there are conditions where collaborative strategies would be inappropriate. He describes conflict management as one of the skills required by a change agent.[105] Evidences of situational employment of varying styles by Dr. Biggy are not revealed. Her participation in change programs in the various schools was too often seen as a threat, thus producing confrontation. The success of her relationship with a building principal could be assessed by the nature of replies from building staffs in response to questions regarding the open-space program. In the Ripley School comments generally were as follows: "Working well, total teacher commitment;" "It is fully accepted;" "Flourishing, totally accepted." The Willard School presented a different view: "Still no help. Broad statements were made, but were unjustified. No one comes, no one helps, no one knows what's really going on." "I fail to see that I'm providing better individualized learning with this situation, but administration has not really taken a consensus of teacher opinion." The Alcott School reports similar teacher reaction: "Double classroom is still continuing. It is not fully accepted." "Not at all accepted, due to many problems." The Wheeler/Thoreau Schools' comments, however, are of a different tone: "Quite fully accepted.

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[104] *Richard E. Walton, "Two Strategies of Social Change and Their Dilemmas," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, I - No. 2, 1965, p. 176.*

[105] *Bennis, Benne, & Chin, p. 153.*

There is a great concern that there needs to be greater refinement of the way this is being done." "It is quite successful." "Working well." It becomes obvious that the success and acceptance of this endeavor was greater where supportive efforts of principals and key staff members were elicited.

Dr. Biggy's short tenure as Acting Superintendent produces little evidence of exceptional activities. Of greater importance is the need to recognize her association with Uhler as part of an intricate web of interpersonal conflict which was to have multiple effects. An explanation is in order.

When Sayre Uhler resigned, in 1966, to take a position with the Peace Corps in Africa, Dr. Ireland was successful in attracting Dr. Biggy back to Concord. One of the forces attracting her back to the district was the probability of Dr. Ireland's staying on for only a short time. In an interview with the School Committee she posed the question as to whether or not the Committee would consider a woman for the superintendency. She was assured that they would. When Ireland resigned, in August of 1967, the School Committee was faced with the task of selecting his successor. In the interim period, Dr. Biggy was appointed Acting Superintendent. A former member of the Committee thus recalled that period: "It seemed rather clear that at least two of the Committee had an obvious preconception toward Sayre Uhler. We hired Harold Hunt to screen candidates. I was not impressed from the beginning and asked if this process was just for show. I was assured that it wasn't and that the search was an honest one. Sayre Uhler was third on a four candidate list, but the Committee hired him anyway."

Her rejection by the Committee was a deep disappointment to Dr. Biggy. Her feelings were further stung by Hunt's alleged remark about "not considering a woman." The crowning disappointment came in the appointment of Sayre Uhler as Superintendent of Schools. Her lack of regard for him was no secret, but rather a feeling she apparently shared with many others on the staff. One teacher reported, "The conflict between Biggy and Uhler was obvious to the staff; as a matter of fact, it was very obvious. Dr. Biggy was outspoken and often called Dr. Uhler a 'very immature little boy.' As far as I can remember, I don't recall Dr. Uhler ever expressing his feelings."

This conflict was to have impact on the morale and loyalty of the professional staff. In addition, the emotional overtones had to have some residual effect on Dr. Biggy, although she continued to perform her role as Assistant Superintendent for Instruction with vigor until her departure, in June of 1969.

Dr. Uhler's style tended to vascillate between High Task and Relationship and High Relationship. The high incidence of problems and unresolved issues that continued throughout his administration would necessitate categorizing his behavior as ineffective. Blanchard and Hersey describe this behavior as "Often seen as a person who tries to please everyone and therefore vascillates back and forth to avoid pressures in a situation," or, "Often seen as primarily interested in harmony and being seen as 'a good person,' and being unwilling to risk disruption of a relationship to accomplish a task."[106] This description of his style is generally consistent with comments reported in Chapter IV - Leadership Portrait.

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[106] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 78.*

Uhler enjoyed considerable success in stimulating the professional staff to seek change. The introduction of modular scheduling in the Middle School is an excellent example of short term output. His failure to support more effectively the continuing needs of the professional staff is evidence of his longer term ineffectiveness in developing organizational health. It was pointed out earlier in this document that short term achievements were not the usual result of his activities. There were frequent references to teachers or school being urged to move into change and then to find support withdrawn. Short term success in changed output was not the usual but rather the unusual.

Uhler's period of service as Assistant Superintendent to Dr. Ireland should have afforded him an unusual opportunity to diagnose accurately the maladies of the organization and to prescribe appropriately an effective course of action. One of the priority changes given to Uhler by the School Committee was to get the organization operating effectively, with principals in a decision making, responsible relationship. Dr. Uhler, in reflecting on his response to this task, commented, "I immediately set out to work with principals. We established short, intermediate and long-range goals. It became obvious that the skills necessary to implement these goals were not present. It also became clear that the strength of the individual building staffs sustained the program. I tried sensitivity training and used human relations group training, but not many of the principals stuck this out. I had to work through staff to move principals." In reflecting on this approach, one must note that the extent to which he utilized the staff as a change agent literally destroyed the principals as effective middle management. It could never be expected that a superintendent would be able to provide the daily support and encouragement

required to sustain a major change effort. Yet no effective means of assisting staff to solve daily operational problems was substituted.

Uhler's concern to reverse the decentralized approach advocated by Dr. Ireland was not matched by appropriate task selection to accomplish more central direction. The implementation of the open-space program at the elementary level and modular-flexible scheduling at the Middle School demanded that the professional staff develop new behavioral patterns and new styles of coping with the learning process. Rather than bring about more centrality, these moves further diffused energies and created newer, more pressing priorities. Several of the parents who were interviewed expressed concern over the direction curriculum was taking. An articulate spokesman remarked, "Curriculum seems to be largely teacher initiated during the eleventh month. This is further modified on a class option basis. Within the elementary schools, it is on a school option basis."

A letter to the editor of the Concord Journal [October 31, 1968] was typical of how parents were coming to feel at that time:

> EXPERIMENTATION IN OUR SCHOOLS
>
> To the Editor:
>
> I would like to raise another voice for moderation in the pace of experimentation in our schools. Surely much of the progress has been most desirable, and only an idiot would want to turn back the clock. But is all well with things as they are? is not consolidation necessary? Instead, I quote from the Journal of October 24:
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> " . . . because up to this year heterogeneous grouping has been tried in only one courseand by only one teacher, the results are a limited proof. This year, with the extension of the experiment to the entire freshman and sophomore grades, a more reliable sampling will be possible . . ."

> Is this explosive increase in the "experiment" desirable? Were the parents of the "experimental animals" consulted? What happens if the brighter children in the "sample" lose one or two years which they can never recover?
>
> Of course desirable change must occur, blanaced against preservation of proven values. But have we lost our balance a bit?

A second failure to consider the necessity for task structure was reflected in the rapid manner in which new ideas or new programs were thrust upon the staff and the community. Consolidation and evaluation were not considered. As a result, Superintendent Uhler's effectiveness was negated by the belief on the part of staff and community that change was being made merely for change's sake. A district administrator observed, "Bud Uhler lost the staff because he tried to do too many things at one time. He wanted to change the world over yesterday." A teacher commented, "He was a charming individual, but he let us down. He could never get out of the clouds to come to grips with the practical reality." A School Committee member remarked, "Bob Ireland shielded him . . . He was always the stable force there to pick up the pieces and put them together again. His exposure as superintendent was not quite the role he expected." Another administrator noted, "He loved conflict. There were times when he seemed to create it on purpose. While this apparently satisfied a personal need for himself, it created an emotional climate which was upsetting to the professional staff."

The researcher recognizes that this reaction was not widely felt outside the professional staff. The following editorial appeared in the Concord Journal on April 9, 1970:

> SO LONG, SAYRE
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> Along in early January of 1968, THE JOURNAL ran an editorial in this very space entitled "Welcome Back, Sayre."

The thread of our thought was that the then School Committee members really had no other choice but to appoint the young PhD to the superintendency. He was, by reason of education, training and prior experience, as assistant to Bob Ireland, the overwhelmingly logical choice to head the mushrooming system devoted to the education of the now generation.

So, it is with more than a twinge of regret that we bid farewell to "Bud" Uhler as he unpacks his luggage in Dallas, Texas to assume the presidency of Childrens' World, Inc. In Dallas he will direct am ambitious, imaginative program subsidized by funds from private industry intent on improving the lot of the under-educated in the public sector.

Dr. Uhler possessed dynamic drive, unusual even for these days, which propelled him to the top of his profession . . . a profession where the young-at-heart usually have to struggle long years for recognition. He was recognized by public school educators across the nation years ago as a real "comer." That he arrived at the highest level of his chosen profession so soon surprised none who had worked with, for, or under him.

He came on stage at a time when a static, almost stagnant, era in public education was about to be erased by the earth shaking accomplishment of the Russians in the field of space exploration. It took the exploits of the Soviets to shake the educational system to its withering roots.

Uhler was an innovator at a time when innovation was necessary if America was to keep pace in the quickening international competition in the fields of science and the humanities.

His changes in methods and curriculum were many and varied. This prompted criticism from those to whom change is always anathema. Today, there are some who wonder about the validity and possible benefits of such innovation. More are convinced that because he dared to lead in areas only cautiously approached by many of his contemporaries, hundreds of Concord-Carlisle boys and girls are the primary beneficiaries.

For the members of his teaching staff, he contributed much to their fight for better wages and working conditions. More importantly, he was among the first to jump into the fray when their liberties as educators were threatened. Sayre Uhler had no time for the petty and those of small minds who would censor the work plans of the Concord teachers.

Equally important was his ability to communicate with the young whose destinies his department was helping mold. He could, when the occasion demanded, and there were many such, think young. Had he not had this ability we all might have been in trouble month ago.

> The challenge of Dallas looms large and three years is not too long for total achievement. When you are in the company of Ross Perot, Ham Richardson, Bobby Brown and Jimmy Ling you are running with the top stars on the non-sporting American scene.
>
> We have a hunch that Sayre Uhler will be breasting the tape well ahead of the field.
>
> So we say, "So long Sayre. Good luck."

Uhler's style adaptability was negative. His consistency in disregarding task structure and his inconsistency in dealing with his followers' personalities and expectations contribute to ranking his leadership as ineffective. Fillmore Sanford writes that there is some justification for regarding followers "as the most crucial factor in any leadership event."[107] Victor H. Broom has uncovered evidence that the effectiveness of a leader depends greatly on the personality or style of the individual workers. Even though a manager would prefer to change his followers' styles, he may find that he must adapt, at least temporarily, to their present behavior. His behavior, at least to some extent, must be compatible with the present expectations of the group.[108] Uhler's lack of diagnostic ability, or his unwillingness to alter his own behavior, was a damaging factor.

In reflecting on Leadership Effectiveness during the period of the study, the following conclusion emerges from the previous analysis. Each of the superintendents cited demonstrated some success and effectiveness in producing short term (output) change. With the exception of the Concord-Carlisle High School, all the schools of Concord exhibited organizational and instructional changes during this period. The long term effectiveness of all the chief school administrators in producing sounder

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[107] *Fillmor H. Sanford, Authoritarianism and Leadership, (Philadelphia: Institute for Research in Human Relations), 1950, p. 97.*

[108] *Victor H. Broom, Some Personality Determinants of the Effect of Participation, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall), 1960, p. 77.*

organizational health was singularly lacking. In addition, each of the Superintendents failed to demonstrate any adaptability to meet changing variables. Their styles remained consistent despite changes in the emotional tenor of the faculty, a shift in values within the community and a change in the views of the School Committee. Their leadership is generally categorized as ineffective. There is no indication that any of the three made any conscious effort to employ the professional change data relating to leadership behavior and effectiveness.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #2 - Organizational Health

A re-definition of planned change provides a useful springboard to consider organizational health in the Concord Schools during the period of the study. Bennis views planned change as "a process involving a change agent, a client system and a collaborative attempt to apply valid knowledge to the client's problems."[109] Bennis defines a collaborative relationship as one in which the following exist:

1. A joint effort that involves material determination of goals
2. A spirit of inquiry
3. A relationship growing out of a here and now encounter
4. A voluntary relationship between change agent and client with either party free to terminate the relationship after joint consultation
5. A power distribution in which client and change agent have equal or almost equal opportunity to influence each other
6. An emphasis on methodological, rather than specific, substantive goals.[110]

Collaboration is the crux of a healthy, trusting relationship. Because both the change agent and the client must deal with valid data that would be available to all, the spirit and the means in which data

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[109]*Bennis, Benne and Chin, p. 65.*
[110]*Bennis, p. 94.*

are utilized cannot be either threatening or inhibiting to either party. A second consideration is the high risk of change. For teachers to take risks via new and bolder programs, support, help and trust are required. A third important aspect of collaboration is the client's acceptance of, ownership of and commitment to whatever changes are undertaken. Blind obedience or grudging acceptance of change gives the client no stake in the change effort. It rather produces resistance and failure.

A consideration of organizational health flows naturally from the definition of planned change and the accompanying emphasis on collaboration. Owens provides a simple definition of organizational health. He claims that it "refers to the processes through which the organization approaches problems."[111] Collaboration is assumed to be some part of that process.

In analyzing data pertinent to Concord leadership behavior and the three change incidents, the most logical conclusion is that there are no evidences of continuing collaboration during the years covered by this study. All of the changes noted in the initial staff survey attribute responsibility and impetus for change to the administration. The only practical exception was the Reporting Study, which, while initiated by administration, was consummated by the total staff.

The behavior of the chief school officers in relation to a collaborative relationship warrants commentary. Dr. Ireland, while placing no premium or emphasis on collaboration on the district level, did not inhibit it within schools by externally demanding or specifying particular changes. Collaboration was generally incidental during his superintendency. The only notable exception was the Reporting Study, which as previously noted, almost lacked active administrative participation. As

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[111] *Owens, p. 154.*

a result, the committee was able to develop a collaborative relationship with the consultant, Dr. Robert Anderson, and thus collectively apply knowledge and data to seek solutions to a problem.

Dr. Biggy, by virtue of a power style of operating, afforded the client system little or no opportunity to influence her. Power distribution was non-existent; communication, primarily one way. Dr. Uhler exhibited a willingness to work collaboratively, but his "staying power" always managed to terminate relationships prematurely. True collaboration was substantively lacking.

There is no evidence on the part of any of the three superintendents that his sustained and continuing relationship with the professional staff reflected any concern for "planned change" or change as resulting from an orderly, considered process.

The lack of a collaborative relationship on a district-wide basis did not prevent such a relationship from developing within certain individual buildings. The Middle School is perhaps the best example, although in at least two elementary buildings there are observable signs of principal and staff working collaboratively. Bob Diamond, principal of the Middle School, made an early decision to involve his staff in all deliberations and decisions involved in adopting modular scheduling. One of the unique features of the Middle School was the creation of the Faculty Senate. The Senate was comprised of the total faculty, who, by virtue of a mutually accepted arrangement, had the right to override by majority vote any decision of the principal. Other elementary schools made an attempt to utilize the concept, but they met with considerable anguish. Diamond, reflecting an openness and a confidence in staff decision making, has been at ease with the end product. The same is not true of the other principals. It is not the intent of this analysis to comment on the

merits or lack of merits of such an arrangement. Rather appropriate note is taken of this endeavor as a recognition by some on the administrative staff that a collaborative relationship is a requirement and a prerequisite to effective change.

In two other elementary schools, there are evidences of principals being willing to be influenced by staff thinking and participation. This relationship, temporal at best, falls short of the requirements for a true collaborative relationship.

One of the factors mitigating against the development of such relationships has been the hiring practices in the schools of the district. Dr. Ireland noted the tendency of certain principals to hire a preponderance of Irish-Catholics [Boston College, etc.], others to seek protestants, and still others at the elementary level to recruit from only one college [e.g. Tufts]. The implication was that each principal sought to control the direction and tenor of professional activity in his school. The exploitation of personal allegiance was an important controlling factor.

A second inhibitor was the approach taken by certain principals in awarding merit to members of their teaching staff. This was especially true at the Concord-Carlisle High School. Dr. Ireland noted that Principal John Donovan "had developed a group of loyal followers. They supported him and he rewarded this loyalty with use of the merit pay concept." To document this further is unnecessary. The use of patronage was a serious deterrent to a staff whenever they were faced with the hard choice of creating conflict by voicing honest dissent or maintaining status quo. The latter was more likely to assure them probable favored consideration.

In dealing with organizational health in the change literature, the researcher noted that Matthew Miles synthesized the writings of Argyris, Jahoda and S. O. Clark, and developed a set of fairly durable "second-order" system properties that are representative of a multiple criterion approach to the assessment of organizational health.[112] These eleven dimensions will be used as a screen to examine organizational health in the Concord Schools 1965-1970.

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[112] *Matthew B. Miles, Change Processes in the Public Schools, pp. 18-21.*

DIMENSION - TASK CLARITY

1. Goal Focus - People in the organization accept goals as achievable and appropriate

The goals associated with the three critical change incidents selected for this study reveal disparate findings. Objectives emerging from the Reporting Study were gradually evolved by the committee and subsequently disseminated to the staff. The time dimension of the study and the instant feedback to buildings allowed the elementary staff to gradually internalize the changes produced by the study.

The staff at the Middle School participated collaboratively to develop specifications for their program. An observer would note that while these emerged completely informally, they have nevertheless been generalizations which the staff accepted as valid and attainable. They have utilized these broad statements as a base to rationalize later operational decisions.

The open space program cannot be characterized in a similar manner. Goals for this program were administratively conceived in the central office without collaboration with building principals or the teaching staff. This statement needs to be tempered by the short-time dimension imposed by the building program. Dr. Biggy recognized this factor when she noted that the whole problem was "dropped in my lap" after much debate and considerable delay. Resistance and resentment ran high. Evidences of this still continue at this time. A more extensive analysis of this particular incident and its relationship to district goals will

be presented in the section dealing with Goal Clarity as a critical change factor.

The general category of goal focus presents no clear, definitive and continuous effort on the part of the district or its leadership to collaboratively develop and accept new goals. Whatever strengths are evident in this regard are either attributable to a specific building and a specific principal or else incidentally evolving from a study or activity.

2. Goals are understood in terms of supportive behavior required to achieve them

Evidence collected in this study leads the writer to draw the conclusion that training and support to produce new behaviors was never sufficiently anticipated and subsequently provided. The Reporting Study provided two days of training prior to school opening, but this was later to prove inadequate. Chairman Dee was earlier cited as observing, "I felt that we reacted (to problems) too often. It would have been better had we acted before the program started to anticipate these problems and have identified solutions in advance." The open space program literally "went in cold." Teacher comments cited in Chapter IV support that conclusion. The modular schedule at the Middle School was introduced with some lead-in training, but as the staff was to discover, it fell considerably short of touching on the new levels of behavior that were required. Principal Diamond's comment that "once we got started, there was not much assistance made available to the staff" summarizes the pre-entry training accurately.

The problems which developed from insecure and unprepared staff could have been avoided.

3. Communication adequacy - Communication vertically, horizontally, and to and from the surrounding environment is open, continuous, and relatively without distortion

One of the larger problems voiced by staff was their feeling that they had no real line of communication with those above them. A comment typical of this perception referred to the open-space program. A teacher said, "We were really upset that there was no communication going up that teachers had apprehensions about the program." This general tenor was supported and noted in other interviews.

Bennis reports that "Experience and research demonstrate conclusively that subordinates tend to withdraw and/or suppress views that are at variance with those of the boss. They invent political solutions rather than engage in joint problem solving, allow their superiors to make mistakes, even when they, the subordinates, know better."[113]

William H. Read's research demonstrates that "upward communication depends upon three factors: 1) trust between superior and subordinate, 2) the perceived power of the superior from the point of view of the subordinate, and 3) the ambition of the subordinate."[114] In short, power without trust is the main condition of poor communication between ranks. The application of this principle to leadership-follower situations in Concord is obvious.

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[113] *Bennis, p. 202.*

[114] *William H. Read, "Upward Communications in Industrial Hierarchies," Human Relations, 1962, Vol. 15, pp. 3-15.*

Communication downward has been seen by staff as "edicts" and communication laterally between schools has been practically non-existent. One of the examples of that has been the variances between elementary building programs and curricula. An unfortunate dimension has been the constant reference to principals' "building their own kingdoms" and "jealously guarding their programs." All three superintendents made similar references to the "parochial attitude" of principals.

The question of articulation between the elementary schools and the Middle School serves as another example of incomplete communication. In absence of open, unencumbered communication, misapprehension and misinformation take over.

It may be summarized that in the five years covered by this study, there has been no concerted, organized effort to open and improve the communication process. Communication with the enviornment will be dealt with separately in a later section.

4. Power Equalization - the distribution of influence is relatively equitable. Collaboration rather than cohesion is the mode of action.

It was noted earlier that collaboration on a district-wide basis has been practically non-existent. Similarly, there have been singular efforts made in some buildings. Generally, power equilization and distribution of influence was not reflected in the data collected for this study.

DIMENSION - Maintenance Needs - Maintains Itself Internally

5. Resource utilization - The effective use of personnel so that they - as persons - feel "self actualized," feel they are growing and developing in their jobs.

The growth and development of staff have resulted from crisis situational requirements, but not as a natural flow and evolution of program. Maslow writes that "higher level needs (esteem, knowledge and understanding and finally the need to attain self-actualization) emerge in an orderly and predictable manner as lower level needs are satisfied and only after they are satisfied."[115] Owens adds, "This approach to understanding motivation is behavior-oriented and represents an attempt to explain human participation in an organization."[116]

The professional staff in Concord is far removed from self-actualization. The need for esteem, once taken for granted because of the charismatic image of the community, is being threatened. This is happening in two ways: the first is the considerable damage to individual self-esteem by "demanding change" in situations where teachers highly value their own efforts; secondly, the changing view of the community toward the staff (from respect to suspicion and wonderment) also serves to threaten the esteem need. It has been noted previously that teachers have been performing in behavioral areas where they have not acquired or mastered sufficient skills. The autonomy (knowledge and understanding) need therefore could not possible have been satisfied.

This aspect of organizational health is seriously impaired.

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[115] *Maslow, p. 19.*
[116] *Owens, p. 31.*

Douglas McGregor, writing about The Human Side of Enterprise, notes that "the essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives."[117] This consideration must be deemed lacking in Concord during the years covered by this study.

6. Cohesiveness - Members feel attracted to the organization. They want to stay with it, be influenced by it and exert their own influence in the collaborative style suggested earlier.

The research observed little evidence of district cohesiveness and only some semblance of building cohesiveness. The absence of extensive collaborative opportunities has been dealt with previously and thus warrants only additional acknowledgement.

7. Morale - The presence of a general feeling of wellbeing - high morale which is contagious to others.

Morale has generally suffered during the period of this study. The widely differing styles of the superintendents were an upsetting factor to the staff. The power style of Dr. Biggy was the most threatening. The staff at one school reported their reaction to a meeting with Dr. Biggy and George McCune, at which time they were informed, "This is what modern education is all about." Four teachers are alleged to have resigned soon afterwards. A teacher observed, "there has been a tremendous turnover in this school. The order-edict type of directives causes a great deal of dissatisfaction." There are examples in Concord of building units that operate at higher levels of morale and individual satisfaction than do others. The inference is that principals, through

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[117] *Douglas McGregor, "The Human Side of Enterprise," Behavioral Science and The Manager's Role, (Washington D.C.: National Training Labs.) 1969, p. 163.*

their individual styles of building management can do much to create a climate of collaboration and actualization that would be immune to even the harshest unilateral decision.

The open-space program offers an interesting opportunity to assess administrative behavior and its effect on staff morale. The Ripley school became totally immersed in the process of preparation. There are evidences during that period of a collaborative relationship which has carried over into the present. One of the other buildings, after recovering from the "imposition of the program," exhibited a high degree of professionalism in approaching the task of tooling up for the new program. One of that staff noted, "There was not tremendous resistance on the part of the staff. We were moving toward openness anyway. We had a good relationship with our principal. He liked the idea of having try and initiate new things, so this wasn't that tough." Another member of that staff said, "We met together each week to explore possibilities. We also made some decisions as to how to communicate with parents. We visited other schools and did a great deal of reading."

Other teacher comments offer valuable insight into the realm of administrative behavior. One teacher reported, "Several of the principals did not take an active part in the open space program. It was clear that it wasn't their idea, but to neglect it was bad for teachers. Some teachers simply had to sink or swim on their own. There was no help to enable them to better accept the idea and no training for new skills. We were really upset that there was no communication going up that teachers had apprehensions." This general tenor was widely supported as noted

in other interviews. Dr. Biggy commented, "In one school the walls were removed but it was as closed as if they were up." A teacher who had served in that building concurred when she remarked, "Our principal just did not show any sympathy for the open-space program. As a matter of fact he issued a schedule for special teachers which seemed to be a deliberate attempt to undermine the program."

Problems of low staff morale have originated for many reasons. One of the prime contributing factors was the inconsistent, unsupported behavior demonstrated by some principals.

DIMENSION - Self-Renewal - Adapt to Its Environment

8. Innovativeness - Invent new procedures, identify new goals in order to grow and develop and change, rather than remain routinized and standard.

One of the features of change in Concord has been the tendency to effect a change and freeze in on it. This is largely due to two factors. The first recognizes the lack of skill development which failed to precede changes, particularly the open space program and the modular/flexible schedule. It becomes improbable that staff will move beyond their sense of security. The second factor deals with the decided lack of input and assistance to staff after the programs started. Self-renewal was the total responsibility of staff who had full-time involvement in satisfying daily demands.

9. Autonomy - Balanced organizational behavior in relationship to the environment. The organization makes decisions after interaction and examination of its own objectives.

Both the relationship with the environment and decisions and the relationship to goals will be dealt with more fully in a subsequent section. Both of them represent areas of deficiency.

10. Adaption - A healthy organization should be able to change, correct, and adapt faster than the environment.

At the present time there are disparities in the relationship with the environment. Miles observes that "Perhaps interest in this motion is that the system's ability to bring corrective change in itself is faster than the change cycle in the surrounding environment."[118] At this writing there are no outward signs that this capacity exists. The environment is generally becoming upset with specific changes and just with "change" generally. The professional staff openly admits there are problems, both operational and philosophical. The measure of adaptability is still to be taken, but the outlook is bleak.

11. Problem-Solving Adequacy - Well developed structure and procedures for problem solving.

The issue with any organization is not the presence or absence of problems, but rather it is the manner in which the person, group, or organization copes with problems. Chris Argyris has suggested, "In an effective system, problems are solved with minimal energy; they stay solved; and the problem-solving mechanisms used are not weakened but maintained or strengthened."[119]

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[118] *Miles, p. 21.*
[119] *Argyris, p. 137.*

The only viable example of such a solution has been the organization of the Faculty Senate at the Middle School, but this group has yet to prove its worth in organizing to solve problems as opposed to simply providing a rational vehicle for teacher participation in decision making.

The presence of this capacity in the schools or in the district generally is not of sufficient substance to allow its recognition. It has been a general deficiency of leadership that appropriate opportunities and mechanics have not been established to nurture this requirement.

In review, the assessment of organizational health must be diagnosed as sub-standard. In every single criteria used as an indicator, problems have been noted. The growing nature of these problems far outweighs the positive evidences observed in the process of preparing for this analysis. The manager of planned change or the change agent can find ample guidelines available in the literature to provide guidance in nurturing organizational health. Such attention was not paid this critical change factor during the period of this study.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #3 - Dealing With The Community and The School Client System

A review of systems theory is an appropriate entry into an examination of the school and its relationships with the community and the school client system. In a systems model the open system (the schools) exchange energy and information with the environment; the closed system does not. There are inputs to the system and outputs from it. Feedback provides

constant means of evaluation and adaptation. Neal Gross stresses the importance of the community when he states, "More than any other formal organization that I can presently think of, an understanding of the adjustment of the school to its external environment is crucial for those who would guide us to innovations in education."[120] The task of maintaining a balance between the authority and autonomy of the system against the demands and interests of the client group is a constant struggle.

What was the nature of the community of Concord during 1965-1970? Concord has enjoyed a reputation of progressive liberalism among school people in the suburban Boston area. An extract from an editorial in the Concord Journal (March 23, 1966) reads, "Concord, always an attractive community to would-be country squires . . ." Subtle changes began to be felt in 1964 which continued for the balance of the 60's. Superintendent Ireland was to be the first casualty resulting from the change in the tenor and quality of the community itself. Ireland noted in retrospect that, "New people in the community seemed to lean toward the thinking of the John Birch Society. The newcomers were generally well-split. I began to feel the impact of these changes during my last year."

One of the residents noted that "From 1964 on, the new people coming to Concord did not reflect or even accept the town's tradition of liberalism. These were people pulling themselves up socially. They were mostly business men who were concerned about their children piling up a record that would make their next move easy. The Old Guard in Concord was liberal and intellectual. The newcomers seemed to be conservative and ultra-critical." A key administrator noted that Concord was "an

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[120] *Gross and Herriott, p. 47.*

interesting town. The new people were cost-strapped, then there were the swingers and then the people in the middle. You could see the children transfer nervousness to the school program as the community changed."

The School Committee itself has reflected a changing community by a changing membership. Ex-Committeeman Jacobs was the key figure in moving against Dr. Ireland and was powerful in advocating corporate technology in operating the school district. The power and concern of the conservative bloc was recently manifested in the election of Wesley E. Young, who openly advocated a "slow down and evaluate" position. The Concord Free Press, in its issue of Thursday, January 8, 1970, carried the following:

> In announcing his candidacy, Mr. Young says:
>
> Since May 1969, I have made an effort to attend every open meeting of the Concord School Committee and the Concord-Carlisle Regional School Committee.
>
> It is my conclusion, after attending most of these meetings, that our school system has adopted so many new programs, and is about to add so many more programs that no one will know where we are, where we are going, or how much these many new programs will cost us.
>
> The time has come to stop adding any more new programs and/or experiments to our schools until we have fully evaluated the success or failure of the nuerous new projects already started.
>
> The primary responsibility of our school system must be to give our children a sound education at the lowest possible cost to the taxpayer. Since I believe this should be our primary concern, I have decided to become a candidate for the Concord School Committee.

The district has made a continuing effort to communicate with the community. While most of it has been via printed means there have been signs of individual schools' involving parents in continuing dialogues in an effort to re-educate and to develop new normative expectations. This has been sporadic and has lacked central district direction.

Ireland remained the austere leader, operating from the background. The press during his superintendency contained placid accounts of art shows, dramatic events, teacher workshops and other filler material of a district press release quality. Biggy became seriously involved in the building program and instruction per se was not heavily reported. Uhler aroused interest in the METCO program before leaving for Liberia. He was later to be in the center of instructional conflicts upon his return.

The most concentrated, continuous issuance of press materials came during Uhler's administration. Arriving at the best reason for this is much like the chicken and the egg dilemma. Did he pursue a vigorous program because he was convinced of the value of an informed public, or because of the requirement to defend and explain controversial instructional changes? Uhler himself explains, "I felt that the community was depending on me for leadership and information. I got to as many meetings as I could and published a weekly column in the Concord Journal called, 'Dialogue." It was well received."

Several parents interviewed had useful comments pertaining to the school information program. One noted, "Little if any information of value is available with respect to change within the school system on a before-the-fact basis. It is often through implementation that the parent becomes involved and usually through comments of his children who are affected or involved." Another observed, "You can always tell when they think a change is going to go over poorly. They really throw it at us. Most of the time information is poor." Still a third, "We have been told repeatedly that if we don't accept whatever new program is in the offing, that we are depriving our children of a change for a good education."

Principal Diamond acknowledged the sparse preparation for parents in the Middle School when modular/flexible scheduling was introduced. The open-space program was done sporadically, depending directly upon the degree to which the building principal had aligned himself with it. Of the three critical changes used in this study, the reporting change was best handled. The criteria for that judgment is the time dimension of the change (over two years coming) and the opportunity for sufficient feedback from concerned parents. Many controversial problems were identified before anxiety grew beyond the point of management.

Concern for the community and its changing values has received too little attention. Everett Rogers sums up the task of dealing with the community as follows:

> Frequently a limiting factor in educational decision making is the community served by the school. The public becomes interested in education only when the school system departs from what the public "knows" education should be. Educators often fail to keep their community informed about current trends and innovation in education. We tend to forget that these people are generally in the majority and they can effectively block educational change. People are most comfortable with ideas that are familiar to them. If an effort is not made to make the majority of the public comfortable with the proposed change, to make them aware of the need for change, the public may resist the change and cause its rejection.[121]

The professional change literature offers alternatives in the selection of strategies with which to work in a community. Chin saw three major categories: 1) rational empirical; 2) normative-re-educative; and 3) power-coercive.

> The *rational-empirical approach* uses a variety of techniques which are characterized by attempts to convince the clients (those who would be affected by, or should be concerned with the change) that the proposed change is desirable and in their best interests. The assumption is that if people are convinced, they will agree to make the change. By contrast the *normative-reeducative approach* attempts to help people to change their behavior by improving the problem solving processes used by individuals and groups and by

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[121] *Rogers, pp. 56-57.*

> giving attention to ways of changing attitudes, feelings and value systems. *Power-coercive approaches*, as the name clearly implies, use strategies involving the allocation of authority, resources and reward systems. The three approaches are not mutually exclusive - often they exist together in a given situation. Nonetheless they are based on very different assumptions and make use of strategies which are quite dissimilar.[122]

Concord has vascillated between either telling the community what changes were being made (power-coercive) or presenting a change in a rational light and arguing for its adoption (ration-empirical). The open-space program and the modular schedule at the Middle School were de-facto presentations to the community. Regardless of how frequently these changes were "rationalized," it was still obvious to parents that they had little or no choice except to tolerate or react. Parent reaction to school-community relationships bears attention.

One parent commented, "Many changes have occurred in recent years, but all with much worry and doubt about the substantive quality which has accompanied the changes. The Harvey Wheeler Experiment (Individualized Learning Center) was a debacle for a myriad of reasons - poor planning and a doubting administration principally. I think the community now wearies of change for change's sake and will be highly skeptical and reactionary about any glamorous 'new-fangled' changes. However, careful, well-planned innovations will be accepted. The administrators must walk wisely the tightrope between innovations demanded by the community and cleared by the community and those changes they in their 'greater wisdom' must go ahead and implement on their own as the paid leaders of the school system."

Another parent added, "I don't believe that all new programs should be forced on the community. It seems that the Harvard Graduate School of

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[122] *Robert Chin, "Procedures in Effecting Change," Designing Education for the Future, (New York: Citation Press), 1967, pp. 43-45.*

Education has found Concord to be an excellent testing ground for all new theories."

A third, "During the years 1960-65, the community grew slowly, was receptive to change, viewed the administration and faculty as more or less wise and powerful. Between 1965-70, however, the gap between administration and parents widened, or was at least recognized by the town. Parent-teacher groups, small, inactive, autonomous, joined together in a town-wise organization to promote better communications. Still, the administration made critical changes without consulting the parents, or giving them adequate forewarning or education. The result was a very bitter town-wide elementary school parent meeting in 1969. Shortly thereafter, the superintendent resigned."

A fourth, "In my opinion, there is no 'community' reaction to the changes. Various groups and individuals respond in accordance to how they view the change and its impact on either their children or their tax rate or both. Efforts are made to educate the parents and the townspeople in direct relation to the anticipated or experienced oppostion to any given change. It has ranged from using paid consultants to advance the administration's point of view and the printing and distribution of multi-page brochures (especially in the case of school additions or modifications) to the use of mimeographed sheets sent home via the students."

Not all parents interviewed expressed concern over the instructional changes and the way they were implemented. It is not the intent of this analysis to balance the number pro or con program, but rather to observe that relationships with the community and the client system are in a state of turbulence and therefore require attention.

Most change managers would probably agree with Hansen's "consent, consensus and compromise" as the best basis for moving forward. Acceptance of the premise that people do have to be persuaded to change or to support change has almost been ignored to the point of being unidentifiable. There is no sustained evidence of any attempt to manage or improve community/school client relationships through the use of guidelines available in the professional change literature.

CRITICAL CHANGE #4 - Goal Clarity

Goals are essential, not only in establishing guidelines for professional decisions, but also as a basis for working with the community. Miles reflects "that the problem of goal ambiguity makes it difficult to specify the output of educational organizations very precisely. This ambiguity and pseudo-consensus around school output measurement encourage the institutualization and ossification of teaching procedures."[123] Rogers writes "the definition of objectives will facilitate the understanding by the school board, the community, the school administration and the faculty."[124] While goal setting and establishing of objectives do not completely eliminate problems in understanding and acceptance, they are nevertheless essential prerequisites in building confidence and security. This has not been a central concern of the district.

The goal of the reporting committee was to "do something about" pulling together the diverse reporting practices of the various elementary schools. Some consideration was noted in tying the revised reporting procedures into an all-encompassing district program of individualized instruction. The goals of the open-space program were represented as

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[123] Miles, p. 23.
[124] Rogers, p. 63.

being more effective utilization of teacher time and talents through more efficient employment of space and material alternatives. Again the pervasive goal of individualized instruction was part of the program rationale. So too was it with the variations in time and grouping configurations accompanying the modular schedule at the Middle School. In none of the three critical change incidents were goals and objectives specifically codified in advance and subsequently made available as guidelines in selecting appropriate change strategies. The last observation obviates the requirement to note that goals did not originate from any collaborative activity involving district leadership and the followers charged with effecting the change.

A former member of the School Committee noted "The School Committee never spent the time it should have in establishing common goals. That has to be a priority for the 70's." One must add, and neither did the professional staff and its key leadership personnel.

Typical of parent reaction to this concern is the following: "I cannot feel that there is a cohesive philosophy throughout the entire system. Concord can take a lot if we are participants and understand why." Help in understanding program goals has generally been put forward in the form of educationese. The Concord Journal (January 19, 1967) carried a report of a town-wide meeting which dealt with the changing school environment. The article reported, "All of the educators emphasized the united aim of everyone engaged in public education of Concord children. All proclaimed that their common goal was the best possible recognition of individual differences and the greatest possible help in individualized programming."

Several teachers spoke specifically about lack of goals. One commented, "We really have no clearcut goals for our program. What do we

want for our kids? How can we get it? Changes will spin off this kind of dialogue. Parents should be part of this dialogue also. I can understand their uneasiness about where we are going."

James D. Thompson and William J. McEwen, writing in Society and Self, state that "the definition of organizational goals is commonly utilized as a standard for appraising organizational performance. Because of this use of goals, the setting of goals cannot become a static element, but rather they become a necessary and recurring problem facing any organization which must deal with change." They continue, "The goal setting problem is essentially determined by the relationship of the organization to the larger society, which in turn becomes a question of what society (or elements within it) wants done or can be persuaded to support."[125]

This concept is easily transferred to sub-groups within the school environment, to the teachers and to the administrative staff. Discernible goals and substantive objectives are generally lacking. The researcher concludes that little or no attention has been given this critical change factor in Concord during the period covered by this study.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #5 - Role and Influence of a Change Agent

Havelock defines change agent as "a person who facilitates planned change or planned innovation."[126] The change literature is specific in expanding upon this definition. A deliberate and planned collaborative relationship between a change agent and the client system is a consistent

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[125] *James D. Thompson & William J. McEwen, "Organizational Goals and Environment: Goal Setting as a Interaction Process," Society and Self, Bartlett H. Standler, ed., 1962, pp. 94-95.*

[126] *Havelock, p. 3.*

prerequisite. Roger, Chin, Bennis and Walton (Reference Chapter II) all take particular positions regarding the relationship with the client system and the strategies available to the change agent.

There seems little doubt that where change is desired, administrators favorable to change must be present. It is increasingly important that these administrators must be the kinds of people who are well informed and who actively enter into the process of providing stimulation and support for those with whom they work. Guest notes that "specific actions to initiate change are taken by people and, complex organizations being what they are, those at the head are the primary change agents."[127] If one develops this premise to the opposite extreme, then his conclusion should be that when administrators are seen as obstructing, or even failing to encourage desirable change, the change would not succeed.

Havelock notes that:

> . . . regardless of formal job title and position, there are three primary ways in which a person can act as a change agent: 1) he can be a Catalyst who would prod and pressure the system to be less complacent and to start working on its serious problems. By making their dissatisfaction evident and by upsetting the "status quo" they energize the problem solving process: they get things started. 2) He can be a Solution Giver. This involves more than simply having a solution to others' problems. It involves when and how to offer it as well as to how to help the client adapt it to his needs. 3) He can be a Process Helper. Perhaps the most important role is that of helper in the processes of problem solving and innovation. Specifically the process helper can provide valuable assistance in showing the client how to --
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> (a) recognize and define needs.
> (b) diagnose problems and set objectives.
> (c) acquire relevant resources.
> (d) select or create solutions.
> (e) adapt and install solutions.
> (f) evaluate solutions to determine if they are satisfying his needs.[128]

Dr. Ireland took no active role as a change agent. He "facilitated" by not actively opposing. Several principals commented that "in doing

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[127] *Guest, p. 154.*
[128] *Havelock, p. 7.*

their own thing there were times that it seemed clear Dr. Ireland appeared to turn away from any confrontation with their programs. As long as it caused no waves with the community it wasn't an issue." It was indicated earlier that Dr. Ireland relied heavily on his assistant superintendents to provide program leadership. This was carried to an extreme in which he himself had no visibility to staff. As a matter of fact, several teachers interviewed recalled Dr. Ireland as "an image somewhere in the misty background," or "I had to think of him as a terribly conservative, staid individual." He was rarely seen to change this view, and his reliance on his subordinates to give leadership and direction detracted seriously from the organizational needs of the district, namely to portray the image characterized by Guest: "Those at the head are the primary change agents."[129]

Dr. Biggy was an aggressive change agent. She conveyed a powerful image that no one would misinterpret. Teachers saw her as the "driving force for change." Others recalled that "she made people think. She challenged your thinking." There are evidences that she was a catalyst who took relish in upsetting the status quo. She was a solution giver at other times, frequently in difficulty if teachers or administrators were not receptive to or capable of adapting to her solution. At other times she was an effective process helper who worked particularly well with those who accepted her rationale. Dr. Biggy's effectiveness was compromised by a combination of variables that included an uncompromising personality, an insatiable drive, a distaste for mediocrity and sluggishness, and lastly an unfortunate series of personal disappointments and confrontations in her association with Dr. Uhler and the School Committee.

Superintendent Uhler viewed himself as the prime change agent, who by virtue of his presence, drive, and charisma, would sufficiently com-

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[129] Guest, p. 154.

pensate for what he termed "total organizational disability." He continued, "People were really depending upon me as the Superintendent to get things done." During his early period as superintendent Uhler did in fact create the image of being able to unfreeze program and to enable "things to happen." A teacher recalled, "Nothing had changed until he arrived, then everybody seemed to move. Suddenly it all fell apart instead of coming together." A prominent citizen noted, "He had exceptional qualities to get along with people. This was wasted because he found it difficult to follow through." This in essence is his pattern and style as a change agent. He possessed a clear vision of his own role; he possessed the vitality and personal qualities to attract a client system to him, but he lacked the ability to sustain a relationship, particularly one with a considerable time dimension. This characteristic was compounded by his desire for acceptance, which led him to make commitments that were bound to discredit him when they were not kept.

Each of the chief school administrators brought a different interpretation to the role of the superintendent as a change agent. The one conclusion shared in common by all three was a consistent evidence of either a lack of the total comprehensive scope of the change agent as defined by the literature, or a studied unwillingness to make an effort to alter their particular styles of behavior. Planned change showed no real gain as a result of their role as change agents.

The principal change agent in the open-space program was Dr. Biggy. An examination of her behavior as a change agent necessitates the question as to whether she "facilitated" or "demanded" change. The nature of her task imposed limitations as to the alternatives which were open to her, but the choice to move beyond the Ripley School in implementing the open-

space program in the 1969-70 school year was not required nor, might one conjecture, was it warranted in terms of staff and administrative readiness. The choice of acting as "catalyst" or as a "process helper" was available. She rather chose to act as a "solution giver" and to combine this with a power approach to instigate movement.

The change literature offered the option of utilizing an empirical-rational approach (convincing the client that a new approach has greater advantage) or a normative-reeducative approach (the development of new norms through the process of education and learning). Both of these styles required considerable time which Dr. Biggy estimated to be at a premium. The establishment of a lasting relationship with the client system was not achieved. The role demands on Dr. Biggy and perhaps her role perception offer insights in this case.

Interviews with the professional staff elicited unlimited commendations for Dr. Biggy in her "helping" role as Coordinator of Instruction. The staff/advisory nature of that role and her own personal perception of the requirement to be assisting and supportive, established a lasting relationship that was never duplicated in her role as Assistant Superintendent for Instruction. Her perceived role was one of driving for change without considering where others might be in relation to her own skills and expectations.

Lewin's force-field analysis theory had much to offer in this instance. The impulse to meet force with force tended only to produce a static equilibrium and a heightening of tension. Glaser and Watson offer the advice that "when dealing with tensions and resistance, the wisest

and most effective course of action is to focus on ways of understanding and reducing resistance rather than trying to overwhelm it."[130]

Havelock has been cited to illustrate that the role of change agent is open to all, "regardless of position and title."[131] The absence of other change agents in sufficient quantity to offset the power threat of the central administration was a serious deficit. Several principals exhibited change agent behavior, as did certain members of the teaching staff who had previously accepted and internalized the open-space concept. An organization does not legislate change agents, but rather produces a climate acceptable to their nurture and development. The lack of substantial organizational health had in turn negatively influenced the development of a change agent capacity by the majority of the professional staff.

Principal Diamond was perceived by most persons as the change agent in the Middle School modular schedule change. Chairman Joan Dee was similarly identified as the principal change agent in the Reporting Study. Both acted primarily as catalysts. The utilization of consultant services in both projects assisted in identifying solutions. The evidence is not as clear on the effectiveness of the consultants as process helpers. Dr. Anderson, who worked closely with the Reporting Committee, was generally considered to be supportive and helpful.

The Middle School staff reported a different set of experiences and perceptions. Teachers interviewed at the Middle School commented, "Our staff is just generally tired of theorists. We never see them in a school where the action is. Dwight Allen had a mixed reception in our building. Most felt he was just another busybody coming down to tell us what to do."

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[130] *Edward M. Glaser and Goodwin Watson, "What We Have Learned About Planning for Change," Management Review, November 1965, p. 42.*

[131] *Havelock, p. 6.*

Another added, "Allen and the other consultants were just names from somewhere who were saying something to us. Our faculty just doesn't like consultants." An outspoken Middle School teacher added with a vitriolic note, "Along came the Great White Father from the University of Massachusetts (sponsored by Tab or Diet Cola) and his panacea, flexible, modular scheduling."

The use of consultants raises a series of questions about who the change agent should be and where he should be in relationship to the organization. Havelock advocates an inside-outside team:

> In order to capitalize on the advantages and avoid the problems of both insider and outsider, many experienced change agents have suggested that the best solution is a "change agent team" in which both outsiders and insiders work together. Hence, the insider who is initiating a change effort would do well to enlist someone from the outside to work with him. Such an outside person could provide an "expert" legitimacy for the insider's efforts in addition to contributing some real expertise. He could provide an objective perspective on the world in which the inside change agent is working. And the outside expert could give moral support to the insider whose efforts to do what is "right" for his system are being received by his colleagues with something less than enthusiasm.
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> Conversely, the outsider who initiates change would do well to enlist the inside support of some member who both understands the client system and is familiar with the change process. Preferably, this insider would be someone with reasonable security and status within the system, either as a leader, an influential, or a gatekeeper. Any selection of members for the inside-outside team should try to maximize the strengths of both positions in the service of innovation.[132]

It is possible to conclude that the linking pin connection to facilitate the most effective use of the outside advisor was not what it might have been. An accompanying observation relates to the hit-and-run tactics of most consultants, who blow in and out, with little if any accountability or concern for relationships. This is a separate and distinct issue which

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[132] *Havelock, pp. 50-51.*

would be interesting to probe in depth at some later date. For an outside advisor to integrate himself into an effective relationship with a building staff requires careful skill, perhaps considerably beyond that exercised by Dr. Allen and the other consultants at the Concord Middle School.

In summary, it is possible to draw the conclusion that change agent behavior fell consistently short of optimum performance. The styles of the chief school officers and their unwillingness or inability to alter their behavior caused them to be ineffective. Principals have had varied successes in effecting building program changes. The teaching staff has never been nurtured to the point where they would be secure or motivated sufficiently to assume the role of change agent.

The change literature provides ample guidelines for effective change agent behavior, but it has not been systematically or comprehensively consulted.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #6 - Utilization of a Change Process or a Change Model

The body of professional change literature now available does not constitute a theory in any of the accepted uses of that term. It is believed that these notions about planned change are important, however, not alone as guides to consultants, trainers, and researchers of processes of changing, but as elements in a theory of applied behavioral science still largely to be developed. Chin observes that "Conceptual schemes are never right or wrong; they are only useful or not for some specific purpose. In this view, current conceptual schemes of planned change may be judged as of great use for steering the activities of change agents in the practice of their roles."[133]

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[133] *Bennis, Benne and Chin, p. 60.*

The change manager has much to choose from, ranging from the simple to the elegant and the complex. Of greater importance is the recognition that the various models of processes offer important guidance in planning and implementing change in an orderly manner.

An examination of the evidence reveals no such use of this concern in attempting to manage change. The Reporting Study moved slowly and methodically. The careful guidance of Dr. Anderson was valuable in keeping within some logical framework. The open-structure program was a total power strategy. The modular schedule change had the semblance of planned and purposeful process, but Principal Diamond noted with total candor, "It was all strictly intuitive. I would go home at night and think about it. As I had a bright idea we'd go ahead and try it out."

Process or utilization of a change model was never an evidenced, conscious concern.

CRITICAL CHANGE FACTOR #7 - Self-Renewal

The concept of self-renewal is a vital one in a society faced with the prospect of rapid change. Douglas McGregor, noting the capacity for productivity and change, concludes that, "It is possible that the next half century will bring the most dramatic social changes in human history."[134] The functional capacity of a society, an organization, or an individual for growth and development outlines the dimensions of self-renewal. Havelock speaks of the self-renewing capacity of client systems (schools and school districts). He describes four built-in features of this capacity: 1) There should be a positive attitude toward innovation in general. 2) The client system should have an internal subsystem which

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[134] *Douglas McGregor, "Finding Direction in Planned Change," Bennis, Benne and Chin, p. 571.*

is specifically devoted to bringing about change. 3) It should have an active inclination to seek external resources. 4) It should have a perspective on the future as something to plan for.[135] Watson and Glaser support this notion by adding, "If the organization is geared to continued growth, its members will value forward-moving change as a recurrent and desirable phenomenon. From the plateau on which equilibrium is regained, the cycle of change can be launched again."[136]

The leadership role of a chief school administrator is an important one in developing and sustaining the capacity for organizational self-renewal. Hersey and Blanchard define management as "working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals.[137] Assuming then the capacity for self-renewal is a viable organization goal, it becomes a responsibility of management (in this instance the superintendent) to bring it about. What are the evidences of concern for self-renewal by each superintendent in this study? The four self-renewal characteristics identified by Havelock will serve as a screen:

1. A positive attitude toward innovation in general

   Dr. Ireland gave passive support to innovation. The constraints of his conservatism were overpowering. Dr. Biggy was a strong, outspoken advocate of innovation. Dr. Uhler also was an active advocate of innovation.

2. An organization should have an internal subsystem which is specifically devoted to bringing about change.

   Each superintendent in the study paid little or no attention to the structural capacity of the organization (the district) to do more

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[135] *Havelock, pp. 153-156.*

[136] *Goodwin Watson & Edwin M. Glaser, "What We Have Learned About Planning for Change," Management Review, November 1965, p. 46.*

[137] *Hersey and Blanchard, p. 3.*

than maintain itself. There were no internal components of any nature concerned with evaluation or innovation. Each superintendent was a one-man show, although his personal style differed. This characteristic draws a negative evaluation.

3. It should have an active inclination to seek external resources. The utilization of outside resources was extremely limited. Occasional consultants in a specific discipline came to the district. Dr. Robert Anderson of Harvard had contact with the staff on two separate occasions: A reporting study and as a consultant in developing team teaching skills in the elementary schools. Dr. Biggy thus reflected upon this venture, "I doubt that it was one of his shining moments that will appear in one of his books." The Middle School utilized a team from Educational Coordinates in planning for modular scheduling.

   Evidences of general input sessions are lacking. Dr. Ireland's lack of interest in innovative program development allowed him to be comfortable in not having the staff challenged too often. Dr. Biggy, much like the do-it-yourself homeowner, took almost the total input responsibility upon herself. Dr. Uhler failed to follow through any of his innovative notions in sufficient depth to view what outside resources might be useful. During his tenure his sense of the whole organization was not evident.

4. It should have a perspective on the future as something to plan for. A safe general conclusion to apply to each of the three individuals is that there was in fact little sense of the future demonstrated

during the period covered by this study. The here and now and the immediate response to situational requirements was the norm.

The question of self-renewal came up in a very practical sense in interviews with teachers and parents as they expressed concern over a lack of evaluation and feedback in changes introduced in the schools. Typical concerns were:

A teacher: "I feel disturbed at the number of changes our schools are going through. Programs appear and disappear so rapidly, I often wonder if they've been given a change."

A parent: "We feel that many times new changes or experiments in teaching are not fully evaluated or tried before they are started or discarded."

Principals have equal responsibility with district administrators in considering reasons for the lack of introspective practices. The inter-relationship of self-renewal with goal setting, organizational health and concern for process emerges clearly. Deficiencies in achieving the full potential of the other three would lead to the probable expectation that self-renewal would also be unfulfilled, and so it was.

In summary, the superintendents from 1965-1970 showed no interest or no capacity for self-renewal. The change literature is clear as to alternatives that were available but completely ignored.

STUDY SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In Chapter I, the section on Anticipated Findings stated:

> This study is expected to support the proposition that data and knowledge that pertain to the management of planned change and that are available in the professional literature are only partially and incidentally employed by practicing school administrators in effecting change in their schools. It is further expected that the probability of any change's achieving its objectives and being internalized will be enhanced through comprehensive utilization of available change theory.

The researcher finds that the evidence collected in this study supports this hypothesis. A review of the seven critical change factors selected from the professional change literature supports this conclusion.

Critical Change Factor	F i n d i n g
1. Leadership Behavior and Effectiveness	The chief school administrators and the majority of building principals made no personal behavioral or style changes, regardless of the variables in the different leadership situations identified in the study. Practical guidelines from the body of professional change literature, particularly the behavior sciences, are quite specific. There is no evidence that data of this sort was at all considered. There were examples of shorter term output changes which would be considered both successful and effective. However, the long term effectiveness dimension of organizational health and development was specifically lacking in all three superintendents.
2. Organizational Health	Sporadic attempts were made to promote a better climate and environment for change in some schools.

The district leadership demonstrated no concern for organizational health on the total district level. The analysis of this critical change factor in Chapter V makes clear that only partial and incidental concern for organizational health was discernible. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, which compliments Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, are two basic behavioral theories which deserve attention and consideration in Concord.

3. Environment and The School Client System

Changes in the educational program in Concord have caused unusual trauma in the community. The changing nature of the school clientel has received increasing attention from school officials, primarily as a defensive response. The "norms" of the free and liberal Concord of the 1950's and early 1960's are not the normative values of the community involved in this study. The change literature is specific and helpful in offering guidance and strategies for working with the school community. This aspect of change has been handled inadequately in Concord.

4. Goal Clarity

The evidence collected in this study clearly indicates that goal setting and the development of program objectives received only incidental attention. Many of the problems evidenced in dealing with the professional staff and the community surfaced because there was not evidence of clarity of purpose and goal.

5. Change Agent

Change agent behavior was erratic and generally disturbing to the staff and subsequently to the community during the period covered by the study. The researcher concludes that with the exception of not more than two principals, persons who either had the position power to influence change or who were actively cast in a change agent role, paid little or no attention to what the change literature offered as role expectations.

6. Change Model or Process

It became clear early in the study that change theory, process or a change model was not a formal concern of persons giving impetus to change. It became equally clear that the same leaders made situational use of bits and pieces of change data which they felt might best fit the immediate situation. The analysis of this critical factor reveals one of the more clearly observable examples of change behavior as hypothesized in the Anticipated Findings.

7. Self-Renewal

The loosely conceived mechanisms for evaluation and revision as evidenced in this study could help an observer understand a widespread community feeling that the schools are "changing for the sake of change." A more formal, structural concern for self-renewal would do much to contribute to better organizational health, school-community

relations, goal clarity and attention to process. The analysis of this change factor supports the hypothesis.

The mode of investigation and analysis employed in this study holds a valuable potential for students of planned change. Business management and law have made extensive use of the case study technique. Educators need to explore its use to develop more insightful, knowledgeable leadership.

CHAPTER VI

OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The formal structure of a dissertation and the limitations established by the original dissertation proposal soon proved to be uncomfortably inhibiting. The temptation to offer observations not relevant or pertinent to support the design led to the decision to include an additional chapter which has as its sole purpose the recording of free and unencumbered observations and in some cases recommendations where they are appropriate. It is my hope that they will add clarity and a greater understanding of the change process, particularly as it was reported from the Concord Public Schools. The following observations are not reported in any relation to their perceived order of importance.

OBSERVATION #1 - Concord - A Mystique

I had not spent many hours in the community before I developed a feel for Concord as a town hypnotized and driven by its mystique. It is a town of legend; a town of historical charisma; a town of would-be country squires; a town in transition. At the moment, the inevitable suburban battle is being fought there; the ideological clash between the longtime residents and the newcomers, who came to become part of the tradition-centered mystique, but who found themselves either fiscally or philosophically at odds with the cultural pattern that has been Concord.

Donald McIntyre, commenting on tradition, observed, "Traditions can become relatively autonomous of the real situations that created them, can be perpetuated in the same way that other cultural traditions are perpetuated, and can become something newcomers must learn or run the risk of being outcasts. To reverse such a tradition would require much

more than simply altering the circumstances that created it. Traditions become built-in ways of thinking and acting for which alternatives diminish rather than increase."[138]

It is unfortunate to note that the battleground has been, and, I predict, will increasingly be centered around the schools and their programs. Throughout the Ireland era the schools offered solid, traditional education. The offerings were packaged more attractively in such labels and ribbons as continous progress and team teaching, but the veneer was thin and not especially disturbing to either staff or community.

The Biggy/Uhler years demanded and produced changes which were in fact threatening to both the townspeople and the professional staff. Many of the staff rode along with these changes because, "They worked in a progressive town which demanded progressive behavior." A goodly number of townspeople are no longer "liberal Concordians, but rather thinly veneered Liberal-Conservatives whose conservatism shows through at the hint of new taxes or a departure from a controlled, Puritan-ethic oriented school program.

I became impressed with the need to re-establish community normative values about education, especially the purpose and role of the school, and the relationships involved in the learning process. Most decisions to change have been predicated on values that were part of the Concord Mystique, but are in reality not present in Concord today.

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[138] *Donald McIntyre, "Two Schools, One Psychologist," The Psycho-Educational Clinic Papers and Research Studies, Boston, Department of Mental Health, 1969, p. 4.*

Teachers and administrators will soon tire of the endless expenditures of energies which must accompany each change, to persuade a client group that views the school establishment with a jaundiced eye. The risks involved in those ventures will soon cause the professional staff to seek more comfortable shelters.

As I terminated my research relationship in Concord, the feeling was overpowering that this is a town and a school district that is not what it was, nor is it what it will be. The challenge of leadership will be to bring the community and the schools into a mutually realistic relationship with a turbulent present and an uncertain future.

OBSERVATION #2 - Time Perspective and Change

Changes effected in Concord during the years 1967-1970 were made as if motivated by the feeling that "if you don't hurry it'll be out of style." Saranson notes in his book, The Culture of The School and The Problem of Change, "Any conception of the change process in regard to schools, explicitly or implicitly, involves a time perspective. Compare the time perspective of the agents of change with that of those who will in one way or another, participate in the process. This comparison is crucial because if, as is usually the case, the differences in the time perspective are great, the seeds of conflict and disillusionment are already in the soil."[139]

Time is an ally when one couples it with an effective plan or strategy. As the study indicated, there was no attention to process at all. This is unfortunate in that the encumberance of several sequential steps might have imposed a built-in governor on the rate with which the district leadership attacked the problem of change.

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[139] Seymour B. Sarason, The Culture of The School and The Problem of Change, 1971, p. 29.

OBSERVATION #3 - A Requirement for A Total Re-Design Program

The schools and the professional staff have at various times asked profound and searching questions which have real relevancy as to how schools should be organized and what really constitutes learning. Unfortunately, these concerns have not led to the development of new goals or procedures. Up to this point, changes have been piece-meal. Whenever an administrator felt he had either enough power or enough staff members persuaded to try, the change was effected. As each change was made, the district became more ideologically compartmentalized. This was especially true if the change happened to be threatening to others on the professional staff.

It is recommended that school officials consider the organization of a total district re-design task force wherein community, staff and pupils will come together to develop goals which will serve as a basis or springboard for future change. This approach offers the only probable means of causing the Concord-Carlisle High School to examine itself and move ahead to implement much needed revisions. The monolithic administrative structure has been supported by strong personal loyalties to Principal Donovan. He hired to perpetuate the make-up and loyalty of the staff. In addition, the wise use of merit money as a patronage factor all but makes that building untouchable without outside pressures from the community.

OBSERVATION #4 - The School Committee

I must classify the School Committee as an enigma. Their vascillation in coming to closure on an appropriate building program to house the various levels of the program will have long-lasting effect.

There were times when they professed their desire for strong leadership, but then still continued to make operational decisions rather than restrict themselves to policy consideration. They demanded that Uhler do something about the principals, yet they as a School Committee heard the annual reports made by principals and apparently failed to register even tacit objection.

The requirement in June, 1968, that the staff honor the September 1 to June 30 dates of their contracts was intemperate and poorly advised. The loss of morale and trust could not be re-purchased with twice the dollar amount involved with those required work days.

A School Committee has the potential to be a change agent via an aggressive posture taken in advocating quality, individualized learning environments. There were too many instances where the possibility of higher costs leading to higher taxes was the influence most likely to motivate the Committee to take action. The Concord School Committee needs to take stock of its prime responsibilities and move to provide the continuous fiscal, physical and moral support required to achieve these aims.

OBSERVATION #5 - Professional Staff

The attitude and openness of the entire professional staff was singularly impressive as I collected data and observed programs. It did not take long to discover rather convincingly that here was a group of professionals who were concerned and worried and who wanted to talk to someone about their problems. I was received warmly wherever I sought information. It was as though they were hoping that something they might say would get back to people who made a difference in decision making. As I came to examine the communication network in Concord, I could appreciate their concern.

An accompanying concern was the way staff was being impelled to take a much more militant posture through their association. Hopefully, as the state of organizational health improves, the militancy will be de-fused and this energy diverted to satisfying higher level needs. The diagnostic skills of the superintendents or the School Committee have been especially dulled to have missed reading the "signs."

OBSERVATION #6 - Middle Management

Middle management (building administrators) presented a continuing problem to each of the superintendents involved in the study. There is no doubt that there is not a simple explanation to account for individual or group performance. The evidence points to the probability of a higher percentage of success in carrying off the changes made during the study years had middle management exhibited greater support and enthusiasm, or had they acquired more sophisticated technical skills and understandings to support their staffs. The latter consideration is as much a pronounced failure of district leadership as it is an indictment of the middle managers for not demanding the opportunity to acquire such skills.

The problem of leadership skills and personal aspiration at the high school level must be confronted. The School Committee must take an active role in exploring positive alternatives to effect leadership behavioral changes. Periodic transfer of principals and staff between buildings has some potential for moving people out of comfortable ruts.

OBSERVATION #7 - Awareness

One of the keys to effective change is simple awareness. This implies procuring information from scanning the entire field of education, showing the range of alternatives possible for change. Awareness is

general knowledge of what is "new" and what is available; it provides images of solutions but not details.

Thomas Clemens deals rather forcefully with this issue:

> If user apathy were a disease, there would be two major syndromes in education. The first is the 'Don't confuse me with the facts' syndrome, which all-too-often characterizes the attitude of the administrator or practitioner who is afraid that if he gets information that goes counter to what he is doing, he'll be expected to change. The other syndrome in this dread disease of information apathy is the, 'Please mother, I'd rather do it myself,' syndrome, frequently found in the innovative educator and certainly in the educational researcher, who would much rather do an experiment or demonstration all over again than find out whether it has worked some place else.[140]

One of the vital tasks of all school districts is the need to guarantee continued input of data, perceptions, and opportunities for new attitude and skill development.

Concord has provided consultant services from time to time as the staff has requested assistance. For the most part this type of service has not been to develop, but rather to maintain (revised curriculum). More expansive means of providing input (awareness) should be considered. Impetus for change needs to be nurtured from the staff *(Note: professional change literature on organizational health)*. New exposures and input opportunities are in order.

Consultants deserve special note. The district administration should take note of the apparent feeling on the part of some members of the staff about consultants. A careful screening of purposes and rationale for

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[140] *Thomas Clemens, "Information Transfer and Research Utilization in Education," (Address to Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, Michigan, July 14, 1969), p. 11.*

consultant services should be considered. The need for a continuing relationship and some accountability by the consultant to make his "message" operational deserves study.

OBSERVATION #8 - Alternatives

Change in Concord is very much a study in absolutes. The open-space program, while not 100% adopted across the board, offered few variations in the operation as presented. In a similar manner, one might question the wisdom of whether modular scheduling is appropriate for every child and every teacher. The point is not to ponder the merit of these statements, but rather to point out that change should offer alternatives.

Ronald Havelock offers the following comment on the task of generating a range of alternative solutions.

> Ideas for solutions can come from a variety of sources. They may come from research findings as discussed above; they may also come from other client systems or from commercial sources. Some solutions will be suggested more or less directly by the diagnosis or by the statement of objectives, while others iwll be suggested by the kind of resources we have available. Where good solutions are readily available from other programs and projects, it is probably wise to use them, but it is also possible and sometimes advantageous for a client system to generate its own problems. This may not be a matter of "reinventing the wheel" but, rather, a matter of adapting and combining ideas from various sources to produce something that is appropriate for one's own situation.
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> Regardless of the sources of these solution ideas, it is important to generate more than one alternative. A range of alternatives gives the client freedom of choice and an opportunity to make rational and meaningful decisions.[141]

A serious effort to organize for alternative solutions will create a natural movement toward greater involvement by use of existing district personnel resources. This, especially in Concord, would represent a significant step toward acquiring improved organizational health.

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[141]Ronald G. Havelock, A Guide to Innovation in Education, 1970, p. 113

OBSERVATION #9 - Staff Procurement

Some parents who were critical of the Concord program took great pains to emphasize their belief that Concord was part of the "farm system" for the Harvard Graduate School of Education. This parental observation may be true not only of Concord, but also of many of the larger "prestigious" districts in Massachusetts. My observation is not directed at that issue, but at the larger question of total staff procurement. Area inbreeding is a distinct probability and a serious danger for a district intent on making larger program changes. Attention needs to be given the role of a personnel procurement program as part of a larger developmental scheme.

OBSERVATION #10 - Case Study Approach

In the summary and conclusion section in Chapter V, I noted the benefits of this type of study. This approach has a great potential for a university team employed to work with a school district. The introspective nature of this approach provides valuable insight into behavioral relationships within an organization. The case study device presents an effective means of coupling theory with practice. The analytical and predictive value of this approach in unlimited. I found the procedure involved in this study to be of immense personal value. I was compelled to deal more comprehensively with the professional change literature than I had ever done in the past. My knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon known as "planned change" simply multiplied. The opportunity to apply this data in an analysis of the work and efforts of another district afforded me a most unusual and rewarding experience. The appli-

cation of my own knowledge and expertise at no personal risk was an unusually comforting feeling. I feel that I will approach my superintendency with a greater understanding and appreciation for, and ability to work with the many variables in managing planned change.

APPENDIX A

LIST OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED

LIST OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED

SUPERINTENDENTS

Dr. Robert Ireland
Dr. Virginia Biggy
Dr. Sayre Uhler

CENTRAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATORS

Mr. Robert Diamond, Assistant Superintendent for Instruction
Mr. George McCune, Coordinator of Instruction

BUILDING ADMINISTRATORS

Mr. Kenneth Eerberg, Asst. Principal, Sanborn School
Mr. Richard Luoma, Asst. Principal, Peabody School
Mr. Wendell Warren, Principal, Alcott School
Mr. James McMullen, Principal, Wheeler Thoreau School
Miss Marion Gorham, Principal, Ripley School
Mr. Richard Ford, Principal, Willard School

SCHOOL COMMITTEE

Dr. Nathaniel Carleton
Mrs. Barbara Anthony
Mrs. Olive Butman

CONSULTANTS

Dr. Robert Kessler, Educational Coordinates
Dr. Robert Anderson, Harvard Graduate School of Education

PROFESSIONAL STAFF

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Mr. Toby Astley
Miss Betsy Baker
Mrs. Frances Crocker
Mrs. Joan Dee
Miss Pat Duffy
Mrs. Fran Gardella
Mr. John Hall
Mrs. Dorothea Kress
Miss Patricia Moore
Mrs. Helen Parks
Miss Judy Sallett
Mrs. Carol Scott
Mr. Ray Spallane
Mrs. Rosamond Wells

MIDDLE SCHOOL

Mr. Richard Connelly
Mr. George Fayson
Mr. Richard Gardner
Mr. Charles Johnson
Mr. Phillip Jones
Miss Kay McNamara
Mr. Daniel Payson

PARENTS

Mrs. Constance Anderson
Mr. Elmer Angell
Mr. George Biernson
Mr. James Dean
Mr. Carl Glennon
Mrs. Richard Hale
Mrs. William B. Hetzel
Mr. Joseph Lambert
Mrs. Ruth Salinger
Mrs. William Nichols

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY SHEET

(Professional Staff, Community)

A STUDY OF CRITICAL FACTORS IN EFFECTING AND SUSTAINING CHANGE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL OF CONCORD, MASSACHUSETTS

INTRODUCTION

This study is being conducted through the cooperative efforts of the Concord Public Schools and the University of Massachusetts. The goal of this study is to reflect the processes and procedures for effecting change in the public schools of Massachusetts. In order for this study to accurately assess the process of change, it must reflect the experiences and perceptions of all the participants. The professional staff is a vital source of information. Your unrestrained and uninhibited participation is vital to the success of this study. It is a long range investment for you in that data obtained in this study will be of sustained importance in planning for the future in the Concord Schools.

INSTRUCTIONS

For the purpose of this study a CRITICAL INCIDENT OF CHANGE will be defined as an overt act, an event, a behavior on the part of a person or a group of persons which would cause an alteration of behavior by others.

Please use attachment #1 to identify what you believe to be the three most significant critical incidents of change during the school years September 1965 to June 1970. You may deem a change made during those years as critical even though you were not a member of the staff at that time. As long as that incident influences your behavior after you were employed in Concord it may legitimately be listed as a critical incident.

PLEASE CHECK THE APPROPRIATE SPACES -- Number of Years in Concord: ____1 ____2-3 ____6 or more Level: ____ Elementary ____ Middle School ____ High School

Critical Change Incident	Why was this change made? Who was chiefly responsible for it?	What was your role in planning this change? In the decision to implement it?	How did this change influence your behavior? What preparation did you receive in advance of this change?	What is the present status of this change? Is it fully accepted and part of the total progam?	What were the secondary effects of this change? What plans were made to handle these problems? Were these steps successful?
Year:_____ Change:					
Year:_____ Change:					
Year:_____ Change:					

CONCORD PUBLIC SCHOOLS

CONCORD-CARLISLE REGIONAL SCHOOL DISTRICT

April 21, 1971

The Concord Public Schools in cooperation with the University of Massachusetts is participating in a study to reflect the processes and procedures for effecting educational change in the public schools of Massachusetts. An important source of data is the community and particularly the parents of pupils in the Concord Schools. The title of this project is A STUDY OF CRITICAL FACTORS IN EFFECTING AND SUSTAINING CHANGE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF CONCORD, MASSACHUSETTS.

You have been nominated by the principal at the Alcott school as a parent who has taken an active interest in the school program in Concord, and whose comments and insights would be useful for the study. Enclosed with this cover letter please find a questionnaire which I would appreciate your completing and returning in the accompanying self-addressed stamped envelope. The target date for completion of the study is May 15th. Your prompt reply will be of tremendous assistance in meeting that suspense date.

The questionnaire requests that you identify what you believe to be the three most important educational changes in the Concord Schools during the years 1965-1970. Such a change could be instructional (new or different programs) or it could be an important change in key administrators. These suggestions are only intended to be guidelines and are not at all to be considered as limiting. Please feel free to call your building principal, or Mr. Robert Diamond, Assistant Superintendent for Instruction in the Concord Schools, should you wish any further information regarding the study or should you wish to verify the validity of the questionnaire.

Sincerely yours,

John R. Champlin
Project Director

JRC lkr
Enclosures

Return Address: 46 Yale Terrace, Blauvelt, New York 10913

PLEASE FILL IN THE APPROPRIATE DATA

NAME: _____ ADDRESS: _____ TELEPHONE #: _____

Number of Years in Concord: ___1 ___2-3 ___4-5 ___6 or more Children at ____ Elementary School _____ (Name of)

____ Middle School ____ High School

Critical Change	Why was this change made? Who was chiefly responsible for it?	How were you either informed or involved?	Was this change in line with what you understand to be broader district goals?	Were there any problems which resulted from this change?	What has been the community's reaction to the change? What was done to inform or educate the parents?

PLEASE ANSWER ON THE BACK OF THIS SHEET: (1) Do you feel the community is receptive to educational change? What is the basis of your reply?

(2) Has the School Committee been responsive to the feelings and aspirations of the community?

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS - Community

CRITICAL INCIDENT _____

Item Analysis Key	QUESTION
Community/Goal Clarity	1. Why do you feel this change was made?
Community/Process	2. How were you either informed or involved?
Process	3. Have you received any feedback data since the change was made?
Change Agent	4. Who do you feel was chiefly responsible for this change?
Goal Clarity	5. Was this change in line with what you understand to be broader district goals?
Process	6. What were the problems which resulted from this change?
Community	7. Has the school committee been responsive to the feelings and aspirations of the community?
Community	8. Do you feel that the community is receptive to educational change?
Self-renewal/Process	9. What have been the secondary influences? How have they been handled?
Community	10. What has been the community's reaction to the change? What was done to inform or educate the parents?
Organizational Health Process/Self-renewal	11. If you had to do it all over again, what would you do differently?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS - School Committee

CRITICAL INCIDENT _____

Item Analysis Key	QUESTION
Organizational Health	1. What circumstances do you feel prompted this change?
Change Agent	2. Who was the principal advocate of this change?
Goal Clarity	3. How did this change relate to pre-stated district goals?
Process	4. Was the total process of making the change clearly thought through and discussed?
Process/Org.Health	5. What was done to prepare for the change?
Process/Org. Health	6. What types of evaluation feedback have you received?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS - Professional Staff

CRITICAL INCIDENT _____

Item Analysis Key	QUESTION
Organizational Health	1. What circumstances do you feel prompted this change?
Change Agent	2. Who do you feel was the person or group principally responsible for this change?
Organizational Health	3. How were you personally involved in planning, implementing or evaluating the change?
Goal Clarity	4. How was this change related to district goals?
Organizational Health	5. What steps were taken to prepare for change?
Process/Self-renewal	6. What opportunities were available for feedback and open communication regarding any problems, or reactions to the change?
Organizational Health	7. Did you require continuing support and assistance? How was it provided?
Process/Self-renewal	8. How successful is this change? What criteria have been developed for evaluation?

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